The Dissertation Committee for Azita Mokhtari Certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF PERSIAN IN THE UNITED STATES

Committee:

Elaine K. Horwitz, Supervisor

Michael C. Hillmann

Orlando R. Kelm

Zena T. Moore

Diane L. Schallert

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by

Azita Mokhtari, B.A., M.A.

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

August, 2007

DEDICATION

To

Ramin and Sepanta

For Their Love

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Elaine Horwitz, a great mentor, scholar and teacher, for her invaluable encouragement and support during my academic pursuits. In spite of her very tight schedule, she never allowed her busy schedule to delay feedbacks. In reading the draft of the dissertation, the points she raised were all that one could hope for; instructive and vital. I cannot thank her enough for all her valuable teachings. I am also grateful to my committee members for their constructive comments and assistance over the years. Their patience, guidance and scholarship enabled me to complete this study.

I am very thankful that I had the chance of working with Dr. Michael Hillmann who is the embodiment of great scholarship and humanity. He permitted me to teach advanced intensive Persian language classes at his Persepolis Institute in Austin as well as at the University of Baltimore. As a result of these courses, I came to get a better grasp of the problems facing the Persian language learners' situations, needs and interests. I drew upon this understanding in drafting the dissertation. In Dr. Hillmann's research methods classes as well as Persian literature classes, I learned about the tools that eventually would be used in putting this dissertation together, namely bibliographical research as well as careful scholarship with attention to detail.

Dr. Zena Moore, an intrinsic teacher, took me under her wings from the early days at UT and contributed ceaselessly to my education through fun and interesting courses, workshops as well as socio-academic gatherings at her own house. I first learned the basics of self-confidence in actually standing up in front of a room full of people and

delivering a lecture, in her requiring this for all her courses. Eventually, I became so relaxed that I could do so without any shaking whatsoever. I can never thank her enough.

Dr. Diane Schallert is my true eleventh hour rescuer. If not for her keen observations and readiness to drop everything (even delaying important meetings) to set my paperwork straight, my graduation date might have been delayed. I am grateful to her for reading my dissertation thoroughly and giving accurate feedback.

To Dr. Orlando Kelm, the embodiment of academic savior, I am greatly indebted. In spite of his very tight schedule, he readily agreed to serve on my committee. Furthermore, he opened new doors to computer-assisted language learning and teaching for me. Also, special thanks to Ms. Kathy Sowash for her many encouraging words and general thoughtfulness throughout my years at the Foreign Language Education Center.

My appreciation is extended to my friend, Dr. Tae-Kyoung Yang for his statistical assistance. I am grateful to him for his abundant patience and helpful suggestions. I would like to acknowledge all of those who have helped me with data collection: Dr. Behrad Aghaei at the University of Texas at Austin, Dr. Jaleh Pirnazar at the University of California at Berkeley and Dr. Latifeh Hagigi at the University of California at Los Angeles. I send my deep appreciation to anonymous Persian learners for their time and willingness to participate in this study.

I was privileged to teach Persian language in the Middle Eastern Studies Department at the University of Texas at Austin where I initially got interested in the topic of this study and got to know wonderful and highly motivated students of Persian. For this, I would like to thank the chairpersons, Dr. Peter Abboud and Dr. Esther Raizen, for letting me be an instructor for the Persian language courses, on and off, throughout the years at the University of Texas at Austin. In the same department, Dr. Mohammad

Ghanoonparvar, deserves many thanks for the exciting translation courses, and the chance to publish the translation of the book *Kanizu*.

In the Linguistic Department at the University of Texas at Austin, I had the good fortune to take classes and learn from Dr. Lisa Green, Dr. Steve Wechsler and Dr. Raquel Willermann, all were wonderful teachers and above learning from them I greatly enjoyed their classes, they had the knack of getting the student drawn in and excited about the issue at hand. Also, from the great students that call the Linguistic Department their home, I came to know Hyunki Ahn, Behrad Aghaei, Shanon Finch and Golnaz Modarresi Ghavami. They all helped me in various ways, big and small. I can never thank them enough.

In the Germanic Department at the University of Texas at Austin, I had the brief but profound experience of working with and learning from the late Dr. Mark Southern. He was an energetic teacher with unfathomable wealth of knowledge on anything language related. Thank you Dr. Southern and rest in peace.

During a work stint (as well as studying) at the Monterey Institute of international studies, I had wonderful friends and colleagues, whom I would also like to thank here: Hoda Behnam, Kiarash Ehfad, Kevin Jepson, Dr. Ruth Larimer, Dr. Atousa Mirzaie, Azita Mohtadi, and Farah Vezvaie. In addition, My Persian language students at Parslingua, from 2006-2007, as well as their families, all supported me and through allowing me to teach them, helped develop my hypotheses as regards the issue of teaching Persian in the United States.

I am indebted to the following friends and colleagues all over the globe for their support along the way: Tamila and Ahmad Asgari, Dr. Sasan Beheshti, Meltem Clarks, Dr. Haleh Ghane Basir, Michelle and Sam Haddad, Sorraya Hillmann, Alexandra Janney, Louie Lino, Dr. Michael McAnear, Hamid Miri, Kelly Moseley, Randa and Chouki

Mousa, Farideh Nafisi, Cheena Napoliello, Sousan and Reza Naimi, Carmen and Kamel Nikazm, Oliver Rajamani, Nikki and Nina Roberts, Marina Saginian, Sousan and Reza Sedghi, Khashayar and Khodayar Shafaie, Mojgan Tabari, Jinoos and Alireza Zarabi. I will always remember the exciting and beautiful moments we had together.

My close and extended family members and their families all played a unique role in poking, prodding and pushing me to finish. I would like to thank them all: Mahin Parnian Amirjahed; Wisman, Karmin and Shoubaneh Sarraf; Homayoon, Pirouz and Parichehr Moin, The families of: Amirjahed, Daryabari, Entesari, Kahyar, Khaliq-azam, Khatirzad, Khanghahi, Khatirzad, Massah, Moin, Mokhtari, Pahlavan, Parsa, Qaemi, Saeed, Sarraf, Shahreza, Shokouhi. Many thanks go to you for all the loveable moments.

Most of all, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my family in Iran and the United States who have extended their love to me during the course of my graduate study. Their persistent love and support gave me the motivation and dedication to complete the Ph.D. program and this dissertation. Specially, I am deeply indebted to my mother, Mahnaz Kahyar, for taking care of her grandson during my study as well as my mother-in-law, Mahdokht Moin, both of whom provided everything they could to help me in completing this dissertation and for their untiring support and continual encouragement for accomplishment throughout my study. I would like to invoke the memories of both my father Mohammad Mokhtari, and my father in law Morteza Sarraf, who left us too soon but would immensely have enjoyed seeing this work finished, and felt proud, with my achievements. My precious sisters, Nakisa and Nina need special mention, for their unlimited love and support. You were the best siblings ever.

This dissertation would not have been accomplished without the love and encouragement of my beloved husband, Ramin Sarraf and my dearly loved son, Sepanta. Ramin, a wonderful scholar, advisor and friend, had the courage and patience to support,

listen, and encourage for the success of this study. Sepanta had the cheers to relieve the stress of researching, writing, and defending the dissertation. I want to thank you all for these precious and memorable moments of love, care and support.

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF PERSIAN IN THE UNITED STATES

Publication No._____

Azita Mokhtari, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2007

Supervisor: Elaine K. Horwitz

This study identifies and compares the language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning of 166 university students learning Persian (Farsi), a strategic less commonly taught language. The data were collected from three settings in the United States; the University of California at Berkeley (UCB), the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), and the University of Texas at Austin (UT), using three questionnaires: the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

In descriptive analyses of the BALLI, results showed that participants reported holding strong beliefs in the categories of "motivation and expectation" and "foreign language aptitude". A good number of the participants also reported strong beliefs about the importance of learning Persian and strong motivations for learning Persian, particularly to get to know native speakers of Persian better. Descriptive analyses of the

SILL showed that participants reported using compensation and social strategies most, followed by cognitive, metacognitive, memory, and affective strategies. On the other hand, students reported less frequent use of memory and affective strategies.

This higher use of language learning strategies, as well as stronger beliefs about language learning held by students of Persian, likely corresponds to the number of heritage learners and is an indication of a potential existing association. In short, the results of this study provide empirical description of the language learning beliefs and strategies in learners of Persian, a previously unstudied group of language learners. The study concludes with a list of practical implications for Persian instruction.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND STATEMENT

In the last three decades, there has been a shift in focus in the field of second language acquisition from teaching methods to learner characteristics. It has become clearer that much of the responsibility for success in language learning may rest with the efforts of individual learners. Some of this change can be attributed to learners' beliefs (Horwitz, 1987) and particular sets of techniques and strategies (Oxford, 1990a) that individual learners use to learn a target language. Strategies are defined as operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information (Rigney, 1987). Differences, however, exist in learners' beliefs and their use of language learning strategies, e.g., the choice of learning strategies and the frequency of their use (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). These differences seem to contribute to differing approaches to language learning and perhaps ultimately to different degrees of success in language learning.

A number of research studies to date have shown that effective learners use a great variety of appropriate strategies for both receptive and productive

tasks, whereas less effective learners have a smaller repertoire of strategies and often do not choose appropriate strategies for the task (Reiss, 1985; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al, 1978;). In general good learners employ strategies more consciously, more purposefully, more appropriately, and more frequently than do poor learners (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

Research on language learning strategies has blossomed since the mid 1970s, focusing on theoretical foundations of language learning strategies (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Wenden, 1991; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wesche, 1979; Bialystok, 1978), identifying good language learner behaviors and thought processes (Reiss, 1985; Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975), the role of language learning strategies in second language (L2) proficiency and achievement (Phillips, 1991; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ramirez, 1986; Politzer, 1983; Bialystok, 1981), variables underlying strategy choice (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Yang, 1992; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Wenden, 1987b; Politzer, 1983; Bialystok, 1987), and strategy training (O'Malley, 1987; Wenden, 1987c; O'Malley et al., 1985b; Hosenfeld, 1984; Cohen & Aphek, 1980). These studies suggest that language teachers can not afford to ignore the specific strategies of their students.

Among the variables underlying strategy choice, beliefs about language learning (Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kunt, 1997; Oh, 1996; Kern, 1995; Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Yang, 1992; Chamot & Kupper, 1989, Horwitz,

1987; Wenden, 1987b) have steadily become a prominent research issue in the field of second language education. Considerable research indicates that learners' beliefs about language learning have a major influence on how learners approach the language learning process. According to Abraham and Vann (1987), for example, language learners' beliefs may affect the variety and flexibility of the language learning strategies the learners use. Yorio (1986) found that some beliefs about language learning may have a negative influence on language learning. Also, Horwitz (1987) states that some preconceived beliefs are likely to restrict learners in the range of strategies they use. For example, some language learners believe that they should not say anything in the foreign language until they can say it correctly, and some believe that if beginning learners are permitted to make errors at the early stages of language learning, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later.

Since the mid 1980s, a number of studies have focused on learner beliefs and learning strategies among American university students engaged in learning various foreign languages (French, German, Spanish); Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988, 1989). In the 1990s, the thread was picked up by: Yang (1992), Kern (1995), Park (1995), Truitt (1995), Oh (1996), Kunt (1997), Kim-Yoon (2000), and Hong (2006) who have examined learners beliefs as well as other variables such as learning strategies, anxiety, and motivation among various groups whose native languages range from American English to Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and

Turkish. At the end of this introductory period, Horwitz (1999) presented a comprehensive evaluation of the above studies and considered how these beliefs may differ across learner groups.

The last paper, Horwitz (1999), concludes that there is evidence that language learners' beliefs may vary by age, level of learning, and job status. One important issue concerning learner beliefs has been the various influences of students' native cultures. With respect to this relationship, Horwitz (1999) concluded that more variation in beliefs may be the result of learning circumstances rather than differences in cultural background. Another issue raised by Horwitz (1999) is that learners may have undergone changes to their beliefs as they advanced through the levels of the language they were learning.

So far no study has examined the language beliefs and language learning strategies of Persian language students in America. Students who enroll in Persian language may hold different language beliefs and may use different language learning strategies compared to those taking more commonly-taught languages. For instance, they may believe that there are inherent "difficulties" in learning the Persian language, which is so different from English and the commonly taught languages that students may already have some familiarity with. There are a number of particular "difficulties" commonly associated with the Persian language:

1. The Persian script is written from right to left, which is opposite to English and the commonly taught languages in the US that students may have some familiarity with.
2. In the Persian script, letters are typically attached, as opposed with English and other commonly taught languages.
3. There are two distinct forms of the language, the written/formal, and the spoken/informal.
4. In Persian script, three of the vowels are not written (the historically labeled short vowels /æ/, /e/, /o/), which makes reading a word difficult initially as several pronunciation combinations may be possible for one written word, sometimes drastically changing the meaning.
5. There is a short vowel marker (/e/) used between the words of a phrase to signal which words make the phrase, the so-called *kasre-ye ezafe*. This vowel marker is not written and can trip up students who have not adequately prepared a reading assignment. It becomes immediately clear to a listener that the unprepared reader does not know the meaning of what he/she is reading. Many American students expect that it is possible to read aloud without prior preparation.

6. The Persian word order is subject, object, verb (SOV), whereas English is subject, verb, object (SVO).
7. There are several sounds in the Persian language that do not exist in English (/x/, /q/, and syllable final /h/).

These differences and others may impact learner beliefs and even evoke self-doubts about language learning abilities, leading in turn to the different/limited language learning strategy use.

This study will investigate learner beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies used by university students of Persian in America and compare these beliefs and strategies to similar findings for other languages. The goal is to broaden the study of learners' beliefs and strategies to cover those of university students engaged in studying the Persian language. The study surveyed the beliefs and strategies of students at similar levels in their language studies.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Wenden (1987) stated that learners' prescriptive beliefs about how best to learn a second language represent their awareness of language learning and have the potential for developing self-regulation. Such beliefs indicate that learners have begun to reflect on what they are doing in line with their goals, and this awareness may ultimately lead to self-regulation. Later, Wenden (1991) illustrated specific action plans for cultivating supportive beliefs, attitudes, and

strategies to promote learner autonomy. Similarly, Cotterall (1995) contended that learner beliefs are indicators of learners' readiness for a behavioral change toward autonomy, because a given set of particular beliefs and behaviors ultimately predicts a learner's degree of autonomy. These authors concluded that knowledge of beliefs enables both learners and teachers to construct a shared understanding of how to learn and the role beliefs play in the learning process; this knowledge is seen as an essential foundation of autonomy.

Furthermore, according to Wenden (1991) and Dickinson (1987), language learning beliefs and language learning strategies are both critical constituents of understanding "how to learn" a second language (L2). For this reason, language educators should nurture and help students develop effective language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning. Clearly, in order to accomplish this goal, the first step would be the identification of such beliefs and strategies. While previous research has indicated some similarity in beliefs and strategies across learner groups, Horwitz (1989) argues that it is important for teachers to be aware of the characteristics of their specific student group.

To date, there has been no research which has identified Persian language students' use of language learning strategies or their beliefs about language learning. Likewise, no study of effective language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning with particular attention to the Persian language has been attempted. As enrollments increase in less commonly taught languages (LCTL) in general and in the Persian language in particular, it is important to better understand this under-studied learner group.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The major purpose of this study is to explore language learning beliefs and language learning strategies used by university students of Persian in the United States. Since there is almost no previous research on Persian language learners, this study will also compare its findings concerning the language learning beliefs and language learning strategies of Persian language students in the United States to the findings of previous studies involving other foreign language students.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In the field of foreign language education, the majority of studies related to learner beliefs and strategies have focused on the study of English or other commonly taught languages (CTL) in the US such as French, Spanish, and German. Conversely, research on learner beliefs and strategies in less commonly taught languages (LCTL) is rare. In the arena of Persian language such research is non-existent.

The post 9-11 world has underlined the need for professionals in the United States who have full command of a wider variety of foreign languages. There is particularly a crucial need for individuals who are fluent in the LCTLs (strategic languages), specifically languages of the Middle East, the Arab World, and the Islamic World. The US Government has started a massive endeavor to increase instruction in many languages including Persian and other strategic

languages by dedicating funds, initiating the National Security Education Program (NSEP), Language Flagship Program, among other programs.

American national interest dictates that successful “linguists”; that is in American government terms, professionals who have mastered a foreign language, be trained in as short a duration as possible with the highest skills in the widest variety of languages. In short, effectiveness in both language teaching and learning is the objective. In order to be more effective, educators need to know who their students are and how they approach language learning.

Also, finding out about students’ language beliefs and their choice of language learning strategies will offer new insights as to what American students expect and how they go about learning Persian in the classroom. In addition, if students are found to hold unrealistic beliefs about learning Persian, instructors may attempt to modify the preconceived notions that may influence their choice of language learning strategies. Therefore, discussing realistic expectations regarding language learning task may help and engage students in more effective learning.

Furthermore, language beliefs can be culture-bound (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Truitt, 1995). Knowledge of students’ beliefs can then help Persian instructors, most of whom are native Persian speakers, reduce potential classroom conflicts that may stem from inconsistencies between teacher and learner language beliefs. Findings of this study should contribute to research of foreign

language teaching in the direction of better understanding and accommodating learners who take up the daunting task of learning challenging, less commonly taught languages such as Persian. This study will also add to the discussion of the variability of beliefs and strategies in specific learner groups.

Therefore, the current study will attempt to provide empirical evidence on language learners' beliefs and their use of language learning strategies in a previously unstudied target language. The study of Persian language learners' beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies has practical significance since to date neither the beliefs of students of the Persian language in the United States about Persian learning nor their use of language learning strategies has been investigated. It is hoped that this study will provide educators and course developers with a better understanding of an important group of students' "expectations of, commitment to, success in and satisfaction with their language classes" (Horwitz, 1988, p.283). This study should further provide information concerning the learners' use of strategies in learning the Persian language, which can prove useful in developing enhanced and up-to-date Persian language courses.

Persian or Farsi?

In regards to the term "Persian", an explanation is deemed necessary. While the language spoken in Iran has been historically known in the English speaking world as Persian, within the last two decades the term Farsi has surfaced

as an equivalent or even a replacement for the term Persian. In the United States outside of academia and especially within government agencies, the term Farsi is well established. Within the academy, in contrast, there is resistance to the use of the term Farsi (Yarshater, 1988 & 1992; Talattof, 1997; Akbarzadeh, 2005). For accuracy purposes, it has been suggested that the term Farsi Persian be used to refer to the language of Iran as opposed to Tajiki Persian and Dari Persian spoken respectively in Tajikistan and Afghanistan (Hillmann, 2006).

It is also noteworthy that the Academy of the Persian Language and Literature, Iran's highest authority on the Persian language, has delivered a pronouncement on the English name of Persian language and rejected any usage of the word "Farsi" over Persian/Persa/Persane/Persisch in Western languages. The announcement reads:

1) "Persian" has been used in a variety of publications including cultural, scientific and diplomatic documents for centuries, and therefore, it carries a very significant historical and cultural meaning. Hence, changing "Persian" to "Farsi" will negate this established important precedent.
2) Changing the usage from "Persian" to "Farsi" may give the impression that Farsi is a new language, although this may well be the intention of some users of the term Farsi.
3) Changing the usage may also give the impression that Farsi is a dialect used in some parts of Iran rather than the predominant and official language of the country.

4) The word “Farsi” has never been used in any research paper of university document in any Western language, and the proposal to begin using it would create doubt and ambiguity about the name of the official language of Iran (Wikipedia).

In general, given the fact that currently all English language radio broadcasting services (VOA, BBC, etc.) use the label “Persian Service” for their broadcasts in the language targeted at Iranians, specifically within the scope of current study, the author believes that the term “Persian” is most appropriate to be used here to denote the Farsi dialect of the Persian language used in Iran.

PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

This chapter has presented the purpose of the study, background statement, statement of the problem, and significance of the study. The remaining chapters are ordered as follows: Chapter 2 reviews literature on language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning. Chapter 3 describes the research design, the participants, instruments, data collection procedures, research questions, and data analysis methods. Chapter 4 presents the results and discussion. Chapter 5 summarizes the study and offers conclusions, suggestions and pedagogical implications, limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of the literature which focuses on beliefs about language learning, and language learning strategies. The section on language learning strategies includes definitions and classifications of language learning strategies, research and previous studies on language learning strategies, studies of good language learners, and strategy training. The section on beliefs about language learning consists of definitions, classifications of beliefs about language learning, research and previous studies on beliefs about language learning.

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

In the last thirty years or so, the focus of research in second language acquisition has shifted from the instructor to the student. In other words, interest has moved from the teaching methods to learner characteristics and the learning processes by which learners acquire knowledge. Since the 1970s, research on language learning strategies has deeply flourished. Recently, a large number of training manuals for both language teachers and language learners have appeared

that focus on language learning strategies, these include: Oxford (1990), Brown (1991), and Wenden (1991). Typically, such manuals present research findings related to strategy as the launch pad for developing students' awareness of their own language learning strategies.

Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

After decades of research on language learning strategies, the question of what constitutes language learning strategies still is controversial (Bialystok, 1983; Chaudron, 1988; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chamot, 1993; Rees-Miller, 1993). In order to clarify this elusive term, definitions, characteristics, and categories of language learning strategies will be considered here.

Some research on learning strategies (Dansereau, 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) conclude that language learning strategies "have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner". The goal of strategy use is to "affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge" (p.43).

Another definition given for learning strategies is: "specific behaviors and thought processes employed by the learner to facilitate acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information" (Chamot, 1993; Oxford & Crookall, 1989).

Oxford (1990) extends this definition to the affective domain when she states that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (p.8)."

The term "strategies" has a slightly different meaning for Rubin (1975), who defines it in a narrower sense. For her, strategies are: "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p.43). Still, in describing specific strategies that successful learners tend to use, Rubin does include the following: 1- learners' characteristics or general approaches, 2- techniques or devices.

Rubin (1987) clarifies her definition and writes that language learning strategies are strategies which directly or indirectly facilitate the expansion of the language system. This is consistent with definitions one generally sees as "accepted" in contemporary studies: "learning strategies are any set of operations, steps, or plans used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Brown et al., 1983; O'Malley et al., 1985a).

Additionally, Rubin (1987) proposes that learning strategies are a subcategory of three types of strategies used in language learning which she summarizes in the following postulations on students of language:

1. Some language learners are more successful than others.
2. The learning process includes both explicit and implicit knowledge.
3. Consciousness-raising is not incidental to learning.

4. Successful strategies can be used to good effect by less effective learners.
5. Teachers can promote strategy use.
6. Once trained, students become the best judge of how to approach the learning task.
7. Self-direction promotes learning both inside and outside the classroom.
8. Language learning is like other kinds of learning.
9. The success of learner training in other subjects is applicable to language learning.
10. The “critical” faculty used by all humans in communicating is important in language learning (pp.15-18).

Previous descriptions of learning strategies concentrate on products of learning and behaviors that usually demonstrate inconspicuous cognitive processes. Better understanding of what learners think and do in language learning, has originated an evolution in the definitions that deal with this aspect. For example, Cohen (1998) differentiates between strategic and non-strategic thought processes. Cohen argues that if the strategies associated with learning behavior are not easily identifiable by the learners, then they should simply be referred to as “processes” and not as “strategies”. For example, if a learner can guess the meaning of new words in context while reading for better comprehension and he/she is conscious as to why the guess is working then this process can be referred to as a strategy if not, it should be referred to as just a

process. Cohen defines learning strategies as “processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance learning or use of a second or foreign language through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language” (1998, p.4).

Oxford (1990)’s definition of leaning strategies as: “…specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”, is one that is frequently cited in the literature. Probably, the most comprehensive definition that Oxford as well as others researchers have arrived at for language learning strategies is as follows:

1. Language learning strategies refer to specific actions or techniques, rather than characteristics that describe a learner’s general approach.
2. Some language learning strategies are observable, others are not.
3. Strategies are problem-oriented and are employed to respond to a learning need, or to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information.
4. Strategies refer to language learning behaviors that contribute directly to learning, such as how to regulate learning. Strategies also refer to language learning behavior that contribute indirectly to learning, such as how to communicate with limited linguistic knowledge, and how to create opportunities to learn and use the target language.

5. Sometimes strategies may be consciously developed. However, they can become automatized and remain below consciousness or potentially conscious by developing facility in strategy use.
6. Strategies are amenable to change since, as a part of our mental software, can be learned, modified, or rejected.
7. Strategies involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
8. Strategies are influenced by a variety of factors.
9. Strategies allow the learner to become more self-directed.

(Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Wenden, 1987a).

Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

Just as there has been a need for a good definition for language learning strategies, there has also been a logical requirement for the classification of learning strategies in order to categorize and describe strategic behaviors of language learners.

The theoretical model of second language learning presented by Bialystok (1978) takes into consideration social and biological as well as other factors that may latently be tied to differences in language learning across the whole population of students of languages. In that study, Bialystok stresses that in order to use available information to improve competence as well as proficiency in second language learning, learners ought to exploit learning strategies. This exploitation takes place within the three stages of: language learning input,

knowledge and output. Subsequently, Bialystok identifies four categories of language learning strategies:

1. Functional practicing for using the language for "authentic communication purposes"

2. Monitoring for producing linguistic output

3. Formal language practicing which refers to knowledge about language related to grammatical and syntactical elements

4. Inferencing for comprehending linguistic output in a second language (pp. 78-80).

In a later study, Bialystok (1981) assesses students' use of the four strategy types in the context of text-based language leaning. She connects the use of strategies to achievement as measured by standardized tests and determines that strategy use was differentially correlated with language proficiency where monitoring and inferencing were observed as being applied the most. In regards to influencing learner achievement in both written and verbal tasks, functional practice was found to be the most effective strategy. A remarkable discovery was the linking of formal practice strategies to achievement on written measures by a negative correlation, which implies that homework, grammar exercises, lab works and so on do not play a positive role in students' success in language learning.

Bialystok emphasizes that in using the strategies of language learning, it is the quality and not the quantity that influences successful language realization.

Rubin (1981) studies the use of learning strategies by language learners, and focuses on trying to better understand the cognitive progressions that play a role in second language learning of ESL and EFL students at the University of Hawaii. Rubin distinguishes between the two kinds of actions engaged in by the learners, namely; 1- “actions permitting learning”, 2- “actions that contribute directly to learning” (p. 118). Rubin categorizes the first group of strategies as “indirect” which for example include “motivation to practice”. She regards the second group of strategies as “direct” which for example include “the actual practice activity”. The first group helps in establishing a learner’s disposition towards learning, whereas the second group comprises those strategies that may be explicitly introduced to advance language leaning.

In Politzer (1983) a questionnaire was developed to classify learning strategies in terms of 1- general behaviors, 2- classroom behaviors, and 3- interactions outside of class. This questionnaire was later adopted by Ramirez (1986) to scrutinize language learning strategies that students of French used. In taking into consideration such classifications as well as those of previous studies such as Rubin and O’Malley et al., Ramirez concludes that in the case of the participants in the study, the classification method “may prove to be a useful heuristic approach to both teacher and learner”.

While a number of early studies (Bialystok, 1978; Rubin, 1981, Politzer, 1983; Ramirez, 1986) were concerned with the creation of as complete a picture as was feasible of all the probable strategies in use by language learners and sorting them, the next wave of studies displayed an ever growing awareness of the relationship between the strategies selected by the learners, and the strategies attained by means of explicit instruction and modeling.

Cohen (1998), Chamot & O'Malley (1994), Oxford et al. (1990) and Pearson & Dole (1987) endeavored to design and implement a range of templates for raising the awareness of the learners in the use of the strategies, giving learners the opportunity to practice those strategies and apply them in new learning contexts. O'Mallay, Chamot, as well as others, who have studied language learning strategies, describe these strategies as complex cognitive skills which are based within cognitive theory. In one of their studies, they utilized small group interviews with beginning and intermediate ESL students, and attempted to identify the range of the learners' language learning strategies and to verify if the identified strategies could then be classified within a single system. Twenty-six strategies were identified and classified into three groups: 1) metacognitive strategies, 2) cognitive strategies, and 3) social mediation strategies. On the whole, beginner as well as intermediate level students leaned towards applying more of the cognitive strategies than the metacognitive ones. Repetition and note-taking were found to be the most frequent cognitive strategies

brought into play. Social mediation strategies, on the contrary, were quite infrequently exploited.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) replicate their first study, this time with high school and college level foreign language students and found patterns in the usage of cognitive and metacognitive strategies by foreign language students that were similar to those reported by ESL learners in the previous study. Furthermore, it was found that foreign language students' learning strategies could be organized into three subcategories:

1. Metacognitive strategies: self-regulatory strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation; applicable to a variety of learning tasks.
2. Cognitive strategies: strategies which involve direct manipulation or transformation of learning materials in order to enhance learning or retention such as rehearsal, inferencing, and elaboration.
3. Socioaffective strategies: strategies which involve either interaction with another person or affective control over one's own learning behaviors, such as cooperation and self talk.

Based on prior research, Cohen (1990) chose specific language skills to underscore explicit selected learning strategies thus reflecting his own inclinations as an investigator and focuses primarily on the strategies students use in vocabulary learning. In one of his studies conducted with American students

learning Hebrew in Israel, Cohen and Aphek (1981) investigated how these students learned vocabulary. They identified a number of categories of association utilized by these students and concluded that the use of association facilitated the retention of vocabulary over time. These include:

1. Recall strategies used in vocabulary learning
2. Attending/synthesizing strategies used in conversational discourse
3. Self-awareness and monitoring used in reading
4. Modeling and feedback used in writing (p. 233).

Subsequently, Oxford (1990) classified language learning strategies based on the synthesis of earlier work on good language learning strategies in general (i.e., Naiman et el., 1975; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) and in relation to each of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Hosenfeld, 1976; Papalia & Zampogna, 1977; Tyache & Mendelsohn, 1986). She proposed a comprehensive classification system of learning strategies using the two major groups proposed by Rubin (1981): direct and indirect strategies. Each category was further broken down into subcategories. As in Rubin's classification, Oxford argues that each of the six subcategories of language learning strategies can be classified as either direct or indirect depending on the involvement of the target language; however, Oxford's classification of direct and indirect strategies were quite different from Rubin's classification. Oxford classified the strategies in

terms of their involvement with the target language rather than their contribution to language learning processes as Rubin suggested.

Oxford further argues that the six subcategories of language learning strategies can be classified as either direct (cognitive, memory and compensation strategies) or indirect strategies (metacognitive, social and affective strategies):

1. *Memory strategies* for storing and retrieving new information, such as creating mental linkage, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action

2. *Cognitive strategies* for manipulating and transforming learning materials, such as practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output

3. *Compensation strategies* for overcoming deficiencies in knowledge of the language, such as guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

4. *Metacognitive strategies* for directing the learning process, such as centering one's learning, arranging and planning one's learning, and evaluating one's learning

5. *Affective strategies* for regulating emotions, such as lowering one's anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking one's emotional temperature

6. *Social strategies* for increasing learning experiences with other people, such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

Based on this schema, Oxford developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (1989) to assess the use of learning strategies in second language acquisition. The SILL has undergone successive revisions, producing several versions which have been used by a number of researchers.

Studies of Good Language Learners

In the mid-seventies, Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman et al (1978) investigated learning strategies used by the "good language learner" and drew up lists of the language learning strategies they identified. These strategies were not, as noted above, drawn from empirical data but rather from the intuitions and observations of the researchers. Interestingly, their lists included many learning strategies subsequent empirical studies identified such as guessing, monitoring, and attending to form and meaning.

Rubin (1975) particularly contributed to initial understandings of effective language learners. She observed that determining language learners' strategies is a complicated task because language learning involves cognitive processes which can not be seen. Therefore, Rubin gathered much data using observations and self

reports through which she identified the following language learning strategies used by good language learners:

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication.
3. The good language learner is often not inhibited.
4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form.
5. The good language learner practices.
6. The good language learner monitors his own and speech of others.
7. The good language learner attends to meaning (pp. 45-47).

Stern (1975) also identified strategies of good language learners. Based on his experience as a teacher and learner, he presented a similar list to Rubin of language learning strategies used among successful language learners. His list included ten learning strategies of good language learners based on phases of language learning and problems faced by the learner:

1. A personal learning style or positive or positive learning strategies.
2. An active approach to the learning task.
3. A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.

4. Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.
5. Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system, and revising this system progressively.
6. Constantly searching for meaning.
7. Willingness to practice.
8. Willingness to use the language in real communication.
9. Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
10. Developing the target language more and more as a separate learning system and learning to think in it (pp. 311-316).

Subsequent to Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), Naiman et al. (1978) conducted the first exhaustive study on good language learners. This was an empirical study in which the authors interviewed second language learners and highlighted the following good language learning strategies based on ten good strategies list drafted by Stern:

1. Good language learners actively involve themselves in the language learning task.

2. Good language learners develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system.

3. Good language learners develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction.

4. Good language learners realize initially or with time that they must cope with the affective demands made on them by language learning and succeed in doing so.

5. Good language learners constantly revise their L2 system (pp. 13-15).

Following the good language learner studies, several studies have been conducted to understand less successful language learners by investigating the language learning strategies used by this group of learners. These studies have compared language learning strategies used by the good language learners with those of the poor language learners.

Porte (1988) interviewed fifteen poor language learners to find the language learning strategies that they use. Interestingly, interviews showed that the strategies used by poor language learners were similar to the strategies used by good language learners. However, Porte found that poor language learners used strategies in a less sophisticated and suitable way than good language learners did in their approach to a particular activity. Along the same line, Vann and Abraham (1990) observed the language learning behaviors of two participants who struggled in their language learning efforts. The goal of their study was to determine possible reasons for the lack of success being experienced by these

participants. Results showed that contrary to the common belief that poor language learners are inactive; the participants were actively engaged in their learning. They were consistently busy using strategies such as checking for errors, attempting to clarify meaning, checking comprehension and repeating words. However, these participants failed to correctly match the language learning strategy to the task before them.

Vann and Abraham further argue that the difference between good and poor language learners in terms of language learning strategies is not quantitative but qualitative. According to them, poor language learners used as many strategies as good language learners. Nevertheless, poor language learners often failed to use strategies appropriate to the task, owing to a lack of "cognitive control" (p.184). The study concluded that although learners used many of the same strategies as successful language learners, the difference was in how effectively they matched the learning tool to the learning task.

In summary, the research of the mid-1970s provided a starting point for further investigation into the area of language learning strategies. While some of the above studies are not based on systematically collected empirical findings, they create profiles of good language learners as students who are actively engaged in language learning and are able to problem solve regarding their own learning. One consistent finding is that all language learners report using some type of strategies in their language learning. Differences across learners are in the

relative effectiveness of strategy application; that is, the appropriate implementation of the right strategies at the right times.

Factors Affecting Language Learning Strategy Use

Research studies on language learning strategies have often demonstrated that a number of factors influence the choice of language learning strategies and the frequency of their use. These studies have attempted to investigate how the use of language learning strategies are affected by learner-specific variables such as gender, language proficiency, national origin, cultural background, motivation, attitudes, learning styles, and beliefs about language learning, (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Yang, 1992; Phillips, 1991; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Wenden, 1987b; Ramirez, 1986; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Politzer, 1983; Bialystok, 1981). Most of these studies were conducted in order to assist teachers in understanding individual differences in processes and achievement in language learning.

Gender

Research has shown that gender influences the use of language learning strategies. For instance, gender differences are most obvious in the use of social strategies. Politzer's (1983) study investigated the learning strategies of university students and revealed that women used more social strategies than men.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) also found gender differences in strategy choice. According to Ehrman and Oxford, women used more language learning strategies than men. Specifically, women used more general strategies, authentic language use, searching for and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies than men. Similarly, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) report significant gender differences in strategy use. Specifically, they found that women showed more frequent use of formal rule-based practice strategies (such as using structural knowledge, generating and revising rules, analyzing words); general study strategies (such as ignoring distractions, organizing and using time well); and conversational input strategies (such as requesting slower speech, asking for pronunciation correction).

Green and Oxford (1995) surveyed university students to explain strategy use of English learners in Puerto Rico. The study also revealed a greater use of learning strategies by women than by men. According to this study, women used more memory, affective, cognitive and social strategies. They concluded that differences in strategy use by gender can be explained within individual learning styles, motivations and attitudes. They also stated that more research on the effect of gender in strategy use and L2 proficiency should be done through multiple studies in various learning contexts.

Along the same line, Vandergriff's (1997) study found that the use of language learning strategies was frequently higher in women compared to men. The findings indicated that female students reported using slightly more metacognitive strategies than males. Vandergriff attributed the minimal difference

to the introspective methodology (reporting while listening) used in the study. Even so, this approach may come closer to revealing actual thought processes than instrumentation from previous studies which used a retrospective approach (answering instrument).

Similarly, Osanai (2000) finds that gender differences in language learning do interact with socialization between male and female students. Osanai examines divergences in the use of strategy among male and female ESL university students and concludes that female students tend to use learning strategies more often than male students, particularly so in the case of social and affective strategies.

Conversely, other studies exist that report more strategies being used by male students or no differences in strategy use as relates to students' gender. For example, Tran (1988) studies gender differences in English language acculturation and learning strategies among Vietnamese refugees. The study reveals that male refugees were more likely than their female counterparts to use language learning strategies for the improvement of their language skills. Another similar conclusion is presented in Wharton's (2000) study of the strategy use of bilingual university students in Singapore. This study indicates a greater use of strategies among male students, with more focus primarily on memory, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies.

Overall research findings have indicated that differences exist in strategy use between women and men. Researchers generally agree that gender difference in strategy use may result from other factors such learning styles, verbal aptitude, socialization and life experience (Politzer, 1983; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989;

Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Green and Oxford, 1995; Osanai, 2000; Tran, 1988; Wharton's, 2000). While these studies suggested that women tend to have greater strategy use, a decisive conclusion about gender and language learning strategies has not been reached.

National Origin

National origin or ethnicity has been shown to have a strong influence on learning strategy use. For instance, Politzer and McGroarty (1985) found in their study of Asian and Hispanic ESL students that the Asian students were less likely to engage in certain communication type strategies than Hispanic students. The authors speculated that some effective language learning strategies may be related to ethnic origin. In a similar study, McGroarty found that the Hispanic ESL students favored interactive strategies significantly more than Chinese and Japanese students.

Cultural background has also been reported to play a part in the ease or difficulty with which new strategies are learned. In a strategy training study, O'Malley et al. (1985) found that Asian students were resistant to using imagery and grouping strategies to learn vocabulary, while Hispanic students seemed to enjoy learning the new strategies and performed better on the posttest than the Hispanic students in the control group. Interestingly, the Asian control group who had preferred to use rote repetition outperformed the Asian experimental group. Also Reid (1987) found that ESL students from different national origins differed from each other in their learning style preferences (visual, auditory, kinesthetic,

and tactile) which are probably related to choice of language learning strategies. For instance, Korean students were the most visual in their learning preferences, and Japanese students were the least auditory.

In a somewhat similar vein, Phillips (1991), Mullins (1992) and Yang (1992) conducted several studies to identify students' use of language learning strategies in terms of national origin, using the SILL. Mullins (1992) reported that EFL students at the university level in Thailand used all six categories of English leaning strategies assessed by the SILL. According to Mullins, students highly used compensation, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. On the other hand, Phillips (1991) found that Asian ESL students at the university level reported using more metacognitive, social, and compensation strategies. Yang (1992) also investigated English learning strategies of university students in Taiwan and found that students used formal oral practice and compensation strategies more than other types of strategies.

In sum, the set of studies summarized here found that national origin may influence students' use of language learning strategies. Another finding of these studies is that ESL university students generally used more English learning strategies than EFL university students.

Language Proficiency

Much research has investigated the correlation between learning strategy use and language proficiency. Many of these studies have found a strong relationship between the use of language learning strategies and the level of

language proficiency (Politzer, 1983; O'Malley, 1985; Oxford & Nyikos 1989; Green, 1991; Phillips, 1991; Oxford & Burry-stock, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000; Chou, 2002).

Several studies have found that students at higher course levels or with more years of language study tend to use somewhat different strategies than less advanced students. For instance, Politzer (1983) reported that higher level foreign language students used more positive strategies than lower level students. At the same time, Oxford & Nyikos (1989) explored the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and reading, speaking and listening proficiency. Their results showed that language proficiency was highly related to five factors of learning strategies. They concluded that higher proficiency was accompanied by greater strategy use. In other words, students with higher proficiencies in each of the three skills of reading, speaking and listening showed more frequent and more effective use of strategies.

Also, using standardized English proficiency tests, Park (1997) found that Korean university students chose learning strategies differently according to their English proficiency levels. The findings revealed that all six categories of strategies measured by the SILL (Oxford, 1990) were significantly correlated with the participants' TOEFL scores. The study reported a linear relationship between strategy use and English proficiency. Moreover, the study by Green and Oxford (1995) revealed significant differences in students' use of strategies and levels of English proficiency. They found that the successful language learners engaged in

four types of strategy use during language learning with both greater frequency and to a higher degree than less successful learners.

Similar findings have been reported in other studies. Chou (2002) looked into English scores on the Technology-Based College Entrance Exam of Taiwanese students and compared it with their strategy use in learning English as a foreign language. This study found that language proficiency and strategy use have a strong linear correlation. More proficient students in English showed a tendency to use more learning strategies than those who were less proficient. A similarly recent study, Wharton (2000), looked at the relationship between strategy use and self-rated language proficiency in bilingual university students and concluded that there is a relationship between strategy use and self-related proficiency. Students who believed they were proficient, reported frequent use of numerous strategies. The study concludes that the relationship is possibly "two-way" with proficiency influencing strategy use and the other way around.

In similar studies, however, Green (1991) and Phillips (1991) found that the use of language learning strategies and L2 proficiency is curvilinear rather than linear. They reported that middle proficiency students reported more learning strategies than either high or low proficiency students. Phillips also reported that middle proficiency students used more metacognitive strategies than low proficiency students, supporting previous findings (O'Malley et al., 1985a).

In summary, several studies have argued that appropriate use of language learning strategies is related to improved second language proficiency. This appears to be a reciprocal relationship in that the more learners use language

learning strategies, the more likely they are to acquire higher language proficiency, as long as the strategy use is appropriate to the task. According to the studies above, the relationship between strategy use and language proficiency is not necessarily casual and could be bi-directional.

Language Being Learned

Research has found that the language being studied seems to have an influence on learning strategy use. Politzer (1983) developed a learning behavior questionnaire to examine the language learning strategies of American college students enrolled in French, German, and Spanish language classes. He found that students of Spanish seemed to engage in fewer positive behaviors than students of French and German. Likewise, Chamot and her colleagues (1987) found that students of Russian reported greater strategy use than students of Spanish. McGroarty and Oxford (1990), in examining the learning strategies of students learning Spanish and Japanese, found different patterns in strategy use between these two language groups.

Likewise, Douglas (1992), in looking at categories of orthography linked to reading strategies and in use by American college students of Japanese, observed that the students had the tendency to use monitoring strategies more frequently than learners of other languages, for example students of English as a second language and students of Spanish and German as a foreign language. Douglas understood this difference to be possibly due to language difference, in

particular when there is a great gap in orthography between the learners' first language (English in this case) and the target language (Japanese in this case).

Learning Style

Students with different general learning styles often choose different kinds of strategies (Oxford, 1989c). Ehrman and Oxford (1990) investigated the relationship between learning style and choice of language learning strategies. They used the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to measure students' learning styles and the SILL to assess students' use of language learning strategies and found some statistically significant connections between them. The findings of this study are concluded in terms of eight learning styles.

1. Extroversion/Introversion: Extroverts used more social strategies while introverts preferred metacognitive strategies.
2. Sensing/Intuition: Sensing students preferred memory strategies; whereas, intuitive students used mainly affective and compensation strategies. The latter preferred to use strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, authentic language use, and formal model building.
3. Thinking/Feeling: Thinkers used more cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and feelers used more social strategies.
4. Judging/Perceiving: Judgers reported greater use of general strategies than perceivers, whereas perceivers reported greater use of strategies for searching for and communicating meaning.

Motivation and Attitudes

Motivation along with attitudes has played an influential role in the choice of language learning strategies and successful second language learning (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that highly motivated students used four out of five strategy groups more often than less motivated students. These strategy types were formal practice, functional practice, general study practice and conversational input elicitation.

In a related study, adult learners learning a foreign language for job-related purposes were also found to use many functional communicative strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). In another recent study with the SILL, Oxford (1993) found that the motivational level expressed by high school students learning Japanese was strongly related to their strategy use: the more motivated the student was, the more often she/he used a variety of learning strategies.

Prokop (1989) also found an effect of motivational orientation on strategy use in his study of university students of German. He examined three types of motivations; integrative, instrumental, and intellectual/aesthetic motivation. He found that only students with an instrumental motivation more often employed learning strategies which embodied "Attending to the Details of the Learning Task" (p.89). According to Prokop, these students planned to become language teachers or translators later on. Therefore, Prokop reasoned that "it is meaningful that they employ measures suitable to learning structure and use of the German language in as much detail as possible" (p.89).

Research studies on attitude have also shown that attitude can affect success in learning a foreign language and is likely to influence learners' strategy use. For instance, Bialystok (1978) hypothesizes that choice of language learning strategies may be influenced by the two variables of aptitude and attitude. In a subsequent study, however, Bialystok (1981) reports that students' choice of language learning strategies are determined not by students' aptitude but by their attitudes towards learning a second language. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also found in their strategy training study that one instructor had to stop strategy training due to the negative attitude as well as lack of motivation exhibited by students.

Beliefs about Language Learning

Students' beliefs about language learning underlie their choice of language learning strategies (Wenden, 1986 & 1987; Horwitz, 1987 & 1988; Yang, 1993). Some researchers suggest that learners are unaware of their learning strategies. For instance, Nyikos (1987) found that her students of German were generally unaware of the strategies they used. Chamot & Kupper (1989), however, found that all students in their study were aware of their cognition and were able to describe their own cognitive processes.

Wenden (1987b) investigated what learners thought about how best to approach second language learning and found that their beliefs about language learning influenced their reported strategy use. For instance, learners who emphasized the importance of using a language would report often using

communication strategies, while those who emphasized the importance of learning about the language tended to use cognitive strategies.

Along the same line, Horwitz (1987) developed an instrument called the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to assess students' beliefs about language learning in five major areas: (1) foreign language aptitude, (2) the difficulty of language learning, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and (5) motivation. She suggested connections between learners' metacognitive knowledge or beliefs about language learning and their choice of language learning strategies. In the following section, more detailed information on students' beliefs about language learning and its relationship with the use of language leaning strategies is reported.

Strategy Training

Research on language learning strategies has been conducted with the idea that language learning strategies used by successful learners can be taught to less successful learners. Based on the idea of trainability of language learning strategies, researchers have attempted to find training effects (O'Malley, 1987; Wenden, 1987c; Cohen & Aphek, 1980; O'Malley et al, 1985; Hosenfeld, 1984; Oxford et al., 1989).

For instance, O'Malley et al. (1985b) conducted language learning training with high school ESL students to determine whether the combinations of strategies selected for language tasks would facilitate learning in a natural

classroom setting. Their analyses of training effectiveness produced mixed findings, depending on the language strategies and tasks. In the speaking test, the metacognitive group outperformed the cognitive group, which in turn scored higher than the control group. The results of listening, however, did not distinguish between groups. In the vocabulary test, there were also no significant overall differences among the groups. In general, Hispanic students benefited from strategy instruction, but Asian students did not.

Another strategy training program was conducted by Wenden (1987c) with twenty-three advanced students from various cultural backgrounds for a seven-week program of English. The purpose of the training was to help students become familiar with: (1) comprehension exercises, (2) class discussions, (3) out of class practice tasks, and (4) diary writing. In this study, the training effects were so unsuccessful that less than 50% of the students agreed with the usefulness of strategy training, and only five students gave reasons for the usefulness of strategy training.

Along the same lines, Cohen and Aphek (1980) taught learners of Hebrew as a second language to make associations in vocabulary learning tasks and studied the effects through recall tasks. The training effect of this study was positive in that students used the associations formed during training in succeeding vocabulary learning tasks, and performance was better than that of the control group. Cohen and Aphek additionally found a noteworthy connection

between proficiency and performance related to recall tasks on the basis of association. To sum, more proficient students were more successful at using associations in recall tasks than less proficient students.

Hosenfeld (1984) reports on two case studies in which attempts were made to teach to two unsuccessful high school students the strategies that successful foreign language readers utilized. After introducing the strategies which help in obtain meaning from text, through think-aloud and introspective/retrospective procedures, it was observed that the two unsuccessful readers were able to utilize the language learning strategies used by successful readers in new reading tasks.

Prokop (1989) also examined the effect of strategy training on high and low achievers. He found that high achievers, who possessed very effective strategies from the beginning, increased their use of strategies over the experimental training. On the other hand, low achievers, who were found to possess ineffective strategies before training, changed their strategy use in desirable directions. Prokop (1989) concluded that learning strategy instruction appeared to give the greatest benefit to those low achievers.

In most investigations of learning strategy training with second and foreign language students, the strategy instruction was provided by researchers, with limited participation by classroom teachers. Chamot (1993) has been conducting foreign language learning studies to investigate how foreign language

teachers integrate learning strategy instruction into their teaching and the effect of this type of strategy training on students. She has reported that the majority of students used the learning strategies they were taught in class and believed that the strategies had a positive effect on their learning; however, strategy use at home was generally at a lower frequency. Students also commented on reasons for using or not using the strategies they were trained to utilize. These comments revealed "their metacognitive knowledge about their own learning process" (p.318).

According to Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989), all foreign language students are not aware of the power of language learning strategies for facilitating their learning. They note that "Even though the communicative approach implicitly encourages the use of improved language strategies, not every student will automatically 'catch on' to these strategies without additional help and guidance" (p.36). Thus, Oxford et al (1989) argued that foreign language teachers should develop their students' awareness and use of learning strategies by offering training in which the strategies are made explicit.

In order to improve training effects, researchers have suggested guidelines for strategy training (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1987c; Brown et al. 1983). Among these guidelines are (1) identification of students' strategies, that is, students' use of language learning strategies need to be identified and diagnosed; (2) explicitness of purpose, that is, students should be informed of the value of

training; (3) integration, that is, strategy training should be combined with language training tasks, and (4) evaluation of the strategy training, that is, strategy training should be evaluated by the learners themselves. In addition, it is often argued that training effects may be improved if strategy training takes into account learner characteristics such as motivation, cultural background, learning style, and beliefs about language learning (Rees-Miller, 1993; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Since the mid 1980s, with the growing interest on the role of individual learners in language learning, a large body of research has been published on learner perceptions or beliefs about language learning that provided educators and policy makers with valuable applications.

It is generally agreed that individual language learners hold different beliefs about how language is learned. Individual beliefs about language learning may consciously or unconsciously influence learners' approaches to language learning. As Horwitz (1985, 1987 & 1999) claimed, it is important to understand learner beliefs to better understand learner approaches to language learning, and learner's use of learning strategies to better plan language instruction.

Definitions of Beliefs about Language Learning

Beliefs about language learning refer to learners' notions, perceived ideas insights, perspectives, philosophies, opinions, assumptions of the nature of language learning (Hosenfeld, 1978; Omaggio, 1987; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987a, Holec, 1981). Omaggio (1978) states that good language learners have "insight into the nature of the task" (p.2).

According to Wenden's (1986 & 1987) & Horwitz's (1987 & 1988) studies, there are links between learners' metacognitive knowledge, on the one hand, and their beliefs about language learning and their preferences for language learning strategies, on the other. Wenden (1986) states that metacognition consists of metacognitive knowledge and regulatory skills. She classifies the learners' explicit beliefs about how best to learn a second language into three groups: (1) the importance of actively using the language, (2) the need to learn about grammar and vocabulary, and (3) the role of personal factors. Drawing from the studies on metacognition by Flavell (1979) and Brown et al (1983), Wenden (1986 & 1991) illustrates four ways of characterizing learner beliefs: (1) stable (stored in long-term memory); (2) statable (available to awareness, activated through utterance); (3) fallible (not always correct and empirically supported as some represent the outcome of a learner's experience); (4) interactive (influence the outcome of a learning activity and learning tasks).

In Kalaja (1995), the dynamic nature of student beliefs is asserted and maintained that these may be context-dependent and learner specific. The author characterizes these as "socially constructed", as learner beliefs are influenced by

cultural background. Kalaja additionally defines the nature of learner beliefs as "variable" given that they vary based on context and person even within the same context.

Classifications of Beliefs about Language Learning

In a series of interviews with ESL students, Wenden (1987) found that students' descriptions of their beliefs about language learning were consistent with their choice of learning strategies. Furthermore, Wenden (1986) showed that learners' explicit beliefs about how best to learn a language were reflected in "(1) the kinds of strategies they used; (2) what they attended to; (3) the criteria they used to evaluate the effectiveness of learning activities and the social contexts which gave them the opportunity to use and practice the language; and (4) where they concentrated the use of their strategies" (p.4). Wenden argues that learners' beliefs about language learning may define their approach to language learning.

Among researchers, Horwitz (1987) is considered the first researcher to attempt to identify language learners' beliefs in a systematic way. Based on free-recall tasks and focus group discussions with both foreign language and ESL teachers and students, she developed a 34 Likert-scale questionnaire, called the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to identify student beliefs. The BALLI assesses students' beliefs in five major areas: (1) foreign language aptitude; (2) the difficulty of language leaning; (3) the nature of language learning; (4) learning and communication strategies; and (5) motivations and expectations (Horwitz, 1987). The BALLI instrument has been employed in a

number of subsequent studies (Tumposky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Kern, 1995; Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995; Oh, 1996; Kuntz, 1996; Kunt, 1997; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Kim 2001; and Hong 2006) showing that various beliefs are widespread but also culture-bound at least to an extent.

Studies on Beliefs in an ESL Context

In a series of studies with adult ESL learners, Wenden (1986) found that learners had explicit beliefs about how to learn a language. In another study (1987), semi-structured interviews were conducted with advanced-level adult ESL students in New York City asking about the social contexts in which they practiced, heard, and used English. The studies offered several explicit statements representing learners' beliefs and categorized those beliefs into three groups: (1) the importance of an active stance while speaking and listening; (2) the need to learn about grammar and vocabulary; and (3) the role of personal factors (affective factors, self-concept, and aptitude). Wenden concluded that the learners' beliefs identified in these studies can be inferred to represent their "theories-in-action". This research suggested that learners' beliefs about language learning listed can be used by teachers as a source of insight into learners' difficulties in learning a second language.

Horwitz (1987) conducted a study which involved 32 students who had diverse cultural backgrounds at the intermediate level of the intensive English program at the University of Texas at Austin. Horwitz administered the BALLI to identify student beliefs about language learning. According to the findings,

learner beliefs about language learning varied according to cultural backgrounds and previous experience. Horwitz also argued that some preconceived beliefs are likely to restrict learners' scope of strategy use. For example, some language learners believed that they should not say anything in the language they are studying until they can say it correctly, and some believed that if beginning learners are permitted to make errors at the early stages of learning a language, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later. These beliefs will likely prevent students from accepting a communicative approach to language learning and less likely to use functional language learning strategies.

Studies on Beliefs in an EFL Context

Even though Wenden (1986 & 1987) showed a relationship between students' use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning, more studies needed to be conducted using different methods and analyses in order to clarify this relationship in a variety of leaner groups.

Thus, Yang (1992) investigated the relationship between Chinese university students' use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning, using the SILL and BALLI. From a factor analysis of the learners' responses to the BALLI, Yang identified four categories of beliefs of the Taiwanese students concerning language learning: self-efficacy and expectations, value and nature of learning spoken English, foreign language aptitude, and formal structure study. Also, based on the factor analysis of their SILL responses, six categories of strategies used by the students were found: functional practice

strategies, cognitive-memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, formal oral-practice strategies, social strategies, and compensation strategies.

Yang's study revealed that the belief factor of self-efficacy and expectation about learning English was significantly related to most of the strategy factors. Also the belief about the perceived value and nature of learning spoken English was significantly related to the strategy factor of formal oral practice strategies. Therefore, she proposed a bidirectional relationship between students' beliefs and their use of strategies, positing that while it is true that learners' beliefs affect their use of learning strategies, their successful use of strategies increases their sense of self-efficacy.

In the same manner, Park (1995) examined the correspondence between beliefs about language learning and the use of language learning strategies. In order to categorize the beliefs of Korean EFL university students on language learning, Park ran a Korean version of the BALLI for 338 university students who were engaged in learning English as a foreign language. Park identifies four sets of beliefs that the participants hold: motivational beliefs; beliefs about formal English, self-efficacy; beliefs about social interaction, and beliefs about learning spoken English; beliefs about foreign language aptitude. The Korean students reported various learning strategies in the following four areas: independent and interactive practice strategies, metacognitive strategies, communication-affective strategies, and memory strategies.

The study concluded that Korean students used more metacognitive and memory strategies than communication-affective strategies. Park also reported

that the relationship between the learners' beliefs and the strategies was moderate to low and these relationships may be dependant on the particular beliefs and strategies. In other words, some beliefs were more robustly related to learning strategies than other beliefs. Park concluded that the major reason for this relationship was due to the students' fear of making mistakes and feeling apprehensive when interacting with native speakers of English.

Similarly, Truitt (1995) conducted an investigation on foreign language anxiety and beliefs about language learning on 204 Korean students enrolled in undergraduate EFL English courses. Truitt presents the beliefs of Korean students regarding English learning in five sections: the value and nature of learning English, self-efficacy in speaking, the importance of correctness/formal learning, the ease of learning English, and motivational factors. The students had strong instrumental motivation and were focused on learning English in order to get a better job. Yet, the participants showed low self-efficacy. Truitt concludes that in spite of the students' immense desire to learn and speak the English language, lack of confidence about their own language learning capabilities may delay the bringing of the beliefs into practice.

Kunt (1997) also investigates beliefs about language learning and language anxiety and their relationship. In this study, the BALLI was distributed to 882 Turkish-speaking university students learning English as a foreign language in North Cyprus. Based on factor analysis, the study identified three categories of beliefs for the Turkish students: the value and nature of learning English, self-efficacy/confidence in speaking, and beliefs about social interaction.

The results indicate high instrumental motivation for learning English for both groups, strong beliefs in the importance of learning English, and high value placed on guessing and repeating during practice. In addition, the study reveals significant correlations between confidence in speaking and foreign language anxiety, indicating that the more confident the students are, the lower their anxiety is.

In yet another study on Korean students, Kim-Yoon (2000) administered the BALLIK, which is a modified version of the BALLI questionnaire, and includes additional items. BALLIK is designed to investigate beliefs about language learning as well as the motivation relating to the language learning of three groups of Korean EFL students of various age levels. As a result, three categories of beliefs about language learning were identified for the three groups: confidence in speaking, the nature of learning English, and formal learning. The author found that the bulk of the participants believed that English is a difficult language to learn. Formal learning, in the shape of grammar, vocabulary, and translation, was reported to be believed in strongly. Yet, the students reported greater confidence in speaking. The author concludes that even though the three groups shared the same socio-cultural background, differences in beliefs about language learning existed due to differences in learning stages and previous individual experiences.

Kim (2001), likewise, examines the association between use of learning strategies and beliefs about language learning. For this study, the BALLI was administered to sixty Korean university students to evaluate their beliefs about

language learning. The SILL was also administered to evaluate the students' use of language learning strategies. Overall, based on factor analysis, the following six categories of learning beliefs held by the Korean students were identified: motivational beliefs, formal language learning, self-efficacy, social interaction, language aptitude, and beliefs about practice. The study in addition found close relationship between the students' strategy use and beliefs about language learning, concluding that the students' beliefs about motivation, self-efficacy, and functional practice resulted in strategies getting more frequent use.

Studies on Beliefs in an FL Context

Horwitz (1988) conducted a study on American students of foreign languages. She administered the BALLI to 241 foreign language students at the University of Texas at Austin. Three language learning groups; German, French, and Spanish were used for comparison. Horwitz found a similarity of beliefs among the different target language groups; the findings did not reveal statistically significant differences in beliefs. However, the responses indicated several small differences in beliefs among the groups.

Horwitz explained that "such small differences among groups could result from measurement error, differences in populations, the special nature of learning the target language, or the instructional content of specific classes" (p. 291). She argued that knowledge of learner beliefs may be useful to educators to understand how learners approach language learning. The findings may clarify some

misconceptions about language learning which lead learners to use less effective strategies.

However, with the intention of examining similarities and differences in learners' beliefs over different cultural groups, Tumposky (1991) studied the beliefs about language learning held by two sets of language learners with different sociolinguistic backgrounds. Thus, the BALLI was administered to 36 university students of English as a foreign language in the U.S.S.R and to 42 university students learning Spanish and French in the United States. While the results revealed both similarities and differences between the two groups, the differences may prove the affecting factor in the use of language learning strategies. As was reported, 50 percent of the students from the U.S.S.R reported that they felt nervous speaking in the target language with native speakers; whereas, only a 25 percent of American students reported similar feelings. Tumposky posits that "it seems that culture does contribute to the belief systems of foreign language learners in ways which may relate to motivation and strategy selection" (p.62).

Kern's (1995) study also compared one group of students' beliefs about language learning with those of their instructors of French at the University of California, Berkeley. The study administered the BALLI to 288 students to determine whether students changed their beliefs over the course of a 15-week semester. According to the results, many of the students believed that they would ultimately learn French very well and that they were expecting to speak French fluently in two years or less. The study also found stability in students' beliefs

from the beginning to the end of the semester. In other words, students' beliefs and attitudes were not easily modified through teacher influence.

Kuntz (1996) investigated the beliefs about language learning by 424 first-month university students enrolled in both commonly taught languages (French, German and Spanish) and less commonly taught languages (Arabic and Swahili), using BALLI. This study identified some learning beliefs that were significantly different between the two groups. Findings of this study provided strong evidence that the language studied does influence the beliefs of students concerning foreign language learning. Students of Arabic and Swahili showed a preference for statements associated with communication strategies and people of the target language countries. According to Kuntz, the languages in this study as well as culture and social environment may have shaped beliefs of students.

Oh (1996), in order to investigate beliefs about language learning and foreign language anxiety of American students learning Japanese, administered the BALLI to 195 freshman and sophomore students at the University of Texas at Austin. Factor analysis produced the following four beliefs concerning Japanese learning: motivation/confidence in speaking Japanese, beliefs about importance of formal learning, foreign language aptitude, and beliefs about the importance of correctness. This study shows that some beliefs may be shared by language learners regardless of the language they study. Oh hypothesizes that beliefs about the difficulty of language learning and motivations are related to the specific target language (Japanese, in this case). Oh concludes that "a perception of target language difficulty in general seems to influence language learners' confidence

levels" (p.113), surmising that some beliefs may be affected by the specific language at hand.

Finally, Horwitz (1999) reviewed seven studies conducted with different cultural groups to examine how learners' beliefs may differ across cultures. The participants of these studies were Americans learning foreign languages, and Turkish, Korean, and Taiwanese students learning English as a second or foreign language. According to her analysis and comparison of some of the items listed in the BALLI, the differences within the same cultural group can be explained by the influence of other factors, such as age, language learning situation, or stage of language learning. However, the results of her review across studies revealed no "clear-cut cultural differences" where contrary to Tumposky's (1991) study. She pointed out that it is not clear whether differences in beliefs across cultural groups should be interpreted as cultural differences for several reasons: the degree of similarity of the various culture groups, the amount of random variation on each belief item, and the amount of variation to be considered for conclusions of cultural differences.

In sum, all of the studies suggested that there might be a possibility of a bidirectional relationship between beliefs and strategy use, instead of a unidirectional relationship between them. In other words, it is possible that learners' beliefs may lead to their choice of learning strategies, or that the learners' choice of strategies may influence their beliefs about language learning (Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Yang, 1999).

SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined findings of previous studies on learners' strategy use and their beliefs about language learning as well as presenting the rationale for this study. While early studies on learning strategies focused on identifying strategic behaviors of good language learners, more recent studies have attempted to clarify taxonomies of language learning strategies which were used by learners. Furthermore, through numerous studies, researchers have found that the choice of learning strategies is associated with variables such as learner characteristics, learning context, language proficiency, and cultural and educational backgrounds.

A number of studies have demonstrated that language learners from different backgrounds and learning experiences hold somewhat different beliefs about language learning. Several studies have found that beliefs about language learning may constrain or facilitate learners' use of language learning strategies at least to an extent. Either way, beliefs about language learning have been identified as one of the variables influencing learners' choice and use of learning strategies. Because studies have found that strategy use and beliefs influence learners' success in language learning, further research regarding the use and beliefs of learners about language learning from various backgrounds is warranted in order to provide a better understanding of language learning for specific groups of learners.

While most studies on learners' beliefs and their use of learning have focused learners with various language backgrounds, no study has been found studying beliefs and strategy use of American students learning Persian as a

foreign language. Therefore, there is clearly a need to assess how this group learns Persian and what they believe about language learning.

The following chapter provides the methodology of the current study, which contains the research design, research questions, instruments, participants, data collection, and data analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The major objective of this study is to assess the beliefs about learning the Persian language and the use of language learning strategies of students studying Persian at three American universities. The intent of this study is to determine whether or not learners of the Persian language are similar to other language learners when it comes to beliefs and strategies and the nature of their specific beliefs and strategies. Beliefs were measured using the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1987) and language learning strategies were identified by the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990).

This chapter describes the research methodology of the study and includes descriptions of the research design, research questions, instruments, participants, data collection, and data analysis.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study is primarily descriptive. It uses three self-report questionnaires to identify the students' background, use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning.

The target population of this study is American college students studying Persian as a foreign language in three university settings. Students who participated in this study were enrolled in either first- or second-year Persian language courses at the University of Texas at Austin, the University of California at Los Angeles and the University of California at Berkeley during the fall of 2003. The rationale for choosing these locations was firstly due to the historically large number of Iranian emigrants who have settled in California and Texas; secondly the historically high number of enrollments in Persian language classes in these universities was considered; and finally the prestigious nature of Persian instruction in these settings was taken into account.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What beliefs about language learning do US Persian language learners report holding? How do the American university students' beliefs about language learning compare to those of other language learners?

2. Which beliefs about language learning are most common or least common among the participants in this study?

3. What language learning strategies do US Persian language learners report using? How do the American university students' language learning strategies compare to those of other language learners?

4. Which strategies are most common or least common among the participants in this study?

INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used in this study were: the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ, Appendix A), the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, Appendix B), and the Strategy Inventory For Language Learning (SILL, Appendix C).

Individual Background Questionnaire

An individual background questionnaire (IBQ), developed by the author, was used to gather additional information on individual characteristics of the participants. The questionnaire elicited gender, age, mother tongue, language background, previous foreign language learning experiences, their perceived language learning proficiency and their motivation for studying Persian.

Starting from item 12, subjects were asked about their Persian language experience. Items 12 and 13 asked the subjects how long they had been studying Persian and what had made them interested in learning Persian. The rest of the items solicited information about their perceptions of their proficiency in Persian and their expectation of their proficiency level by completing the entire course.

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

The BALLI was developed by Horwitz (1987) to elicit learners' beliefs about language learning. It contains thirty-four items relating to beliefs within five major areas:

1. foreign language aptitude
2. the difficulty of language learning
3. the nature of language learning
4. learning and communicative strategies, and
5. motivations and expectations

The BALLI is scored on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "1: strongly agree" to "5: strongly agree". Since the BALLI measures a variety of individual beliefs about language learning, there is no composite score. The BALLI was developed based on free-recall protocols by language teachers from different cultural backgrounds, and focus group discussions with language students. It has been tested with American foreign language students, ESL students in the U.S., and EFL students abroad (Horwitz, 1987).

Horwitz (1989) questions the appropriateness of reliability computations for the BALLI; however, several researchers have examined the reliability of the BALLI based on the correlation of the items with each other. In this study, Cronbach's alpha was found to be .53. Previously, Kim-Yoon's (2000) Cronbach's alpha for the BALLI was .71, Kunt's (1997) was .64, Truitt's (1995) was .61, Park's (1995) was .61, and Yang's (1992) was .69. These scores, which ranged from .61 to .71 seem rather low, but may be expected since the BALLI is really a composite of individual items rather than a single scale.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Version 5.1 for English Speakers Learning a New Language) (Oxford, 1989) was used to measure the frequency with which Persian language learners use various language learning strategies. The 80-item questionnaire is divided into the six categories.

1. Memory strategies used for storage and retrieval of new information.
2. Cognitive strategies used for improving understanding and the production of language through various channels.
3. Compensation strategies used to compensate for missing target language knowledge.
4. Metacognitive strategies used for organization of learning and self-evaluation.
5. Affective strategies used to regulate emotions and motivations.
6. Social strategies used to build social interaction and learning with others.

The SILL uses a five point Likert-scale: “1: never or almost never true of me”, “2: generally not true of me”, “3: somewhat true of me”, “4: generally true of me” and “5: always or almost always true of me”. Following Oxford (1989), this study uses the following indications based on the means derived for each item: mean ranges of (1) 4.5 to 5.0 on SILL indicate items that are “always or almost always used”, (2) 3.5 to 4.4 indicate items that are “usually used”, (3) 2.5 to 3.4 indicate items that are “somewhat used”, (4) 1.5 to 2.4 indicate items that

are “generally not used”, and (5) 1.0 to 1.4 indicate items that are “never or almost never used”.

Cronbach’s alpha has been computed in several studies to determine the internal consistency for the SILL. The alpha coefficient of an earlier version (121 items), according to Oxford and Nyikos (1989), was 0.96 and 0.95 respectively based on a 1200 and a 483-subject university sample. According to Oxford’s and Nyikos’s (1989) study, several findings support the validity of the scale. Specifically, there was a correlation of 0.95 between two raters who matched SILL items with strategies in the taxonomy on which it was based. There was also a strong relationship between SILL items and self-reports of proficiency and motivation. Finally, a previous study in which the SILL was administered to more highly trained and less highly trained linguists verified that the more highly trained subjects reporting “more frequent and more wide-ranging” strategy use (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

PARTICIPANTS

The participants surveyed in this study were 166 students enrolled at the University of Texas (UT/67) at Austin, the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA/62) and the University of California at Berkeley (UCB/37) during the 2003 fall semester. The subjects were enrolled in the first-year and second-year Persian language courses at the time the data were collected.

The participants ranged from freshmen to seniors and ranged in age from 17 to 59, with an average age of 22. According to Table 3 below, of the 166

students, 51.8% were men and 48.2% were women. This finding is interesting in itself since enrollments in American colleges and universities, specifically in language classes, tends to a majority of women. 42.8% of the subjects reported Persian as their mother tongue, while 45.8% reported English as their mother tongue and the rest reported other languages as their mother tongue. From the total population of the participants, 48.2% said they were second generation Iranian-Americans and 51.8% said that they were not second generation Iranian-Americans.

Thus, many of the Persian learners can be classified as heritage learners. A "heritage language" can be defined as "the language associated with one's cultural background and it may or may not spoken in the home" (Cho, Cho & Tse, 1997). A "heritage language student" may refer to "a language student who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken, who speaks or at least understands the language, and who is to some degree bilingual in that language and in English" (Valdes, 2001, P. 38). Thus, heritage learners can include students who are exposed to the language in the home as well as students who have family ties to that language. The participants' range of experience with Persian language study was from 0 month to 228 months with an average of 18.1 months.

Table 3 Individual Background Questionnaire

Age

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Total Group	22.1	6.0	18	59

Sex

(Unit: %)

	M	F
Total Group	51.8	48.2

Mother Tongue

(Unit: %)

	PERSIAN (=Farsi)	Persian-English	English	Others
Total Group	42.8	2.4	45.8	9.0

Are you second generation Iranian-American?

(Unit: %)

	YES	No
Total Group	48.2	51.8

Studying Months

(Unit: Month(s))

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Total Group	18.1	36.3	0	228

How important is it for you to become proficient in Persian?

(Unit: %)

	NOT IMPORTANT	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Missing
Total Group	3.0	36.7	59.0	1.2

So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to other students in your class?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing

Total Group	8.4	28.3	47.6	14.5	1.2

So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to native speakers of Persian?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	**FAIR**	**Good**	**Excellent**	Missing
Total Group	38.0	36.7	22.3	1.2	1.2

By the end of this course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	**FAIR**	**Good**	**Excellent**	Missing
Total Group	3.0	28.9	51.8	15.1	1.2

After two years of instruction what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	**FAIR**	**Good**	**Excellent**	Missing
Total Group	0.0	9.6	44.6	44.0	1.2

DATA COLLECTION

The questionnaires were administrated during the 2003 Fall semester. At each survey session, the study was explained to the volunteer subjects. Then a consent form was distributed to be read and signed by all the respondents. Then, the questionnaire was administered. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section consisted of the background questionnaire. The second section included the BALLI questions. And the final section included the SILL items.

The survey administrators reiterated the confidentiality of the survey responses and reminded the respondents that there was no right or wrong answer on the IBQ, the BALLI, or the SILL. The subjects were asked to respond honestly.

DATA ANALYSIS

The quantitative analysis of this study used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.0 for MS Windows XP. The data collected for this study were analyzed according to the following procedures:

1. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, means and standard deviations, were calculated to summarize the responses to the IBQ, BALLI and SILL items. These analyses identified the overall patterns of beliefs about language learning and the use of language learning strategies.
2. To compare responses across the three groups, a cross-comparison between the three groups (three settings) was made.
3. Finally, a cross-comparison with previous studies utilizing the BALLI and SILL was made.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings from the IBQ, the BALLI, and the SILL in order to address four research questions:

1. What beliefs about language learning do US Persian language learners report holding? How do the American university students' beliefs about language learning compare to those of other language learners?
2. Which beliefs about language learning are most common or least common among the participants in this study?
3. What language learning strategies do US Persian language learners report using? How do the American university students' language learning strategies compare to those of other language learners?
4. Which strategies are most common or least common among the participants in this study?

RESULTS

The results and discussion have been categorized into six sections: (1) a descriptive analysis of the IBQ items, (2) a descriptive analysis of the BALLI items, (3) a descriptive report of the most common and the least common beliefs endorsed by Persian language learners, (4) a descriptive analysis of the SILL

items, (5) a descriptive report of the most common and the least common strategies reported by the Persian language learners and (6) a comparison with other groups of language learners from the previous studies.

Descriptive Analyses of IBQ

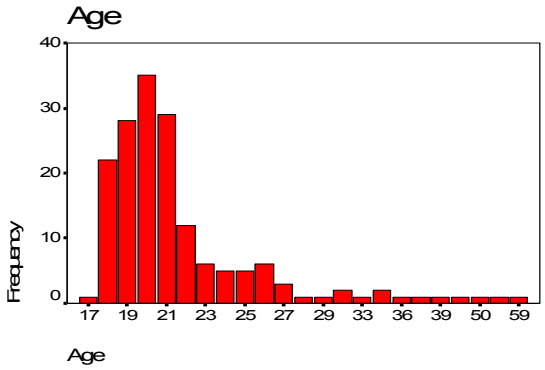
The individual background questionnaire solicited information about the subjects, including gender, age, mother tongue, foreign language learning experience other than Persian, their perceived language learning proficiency and motivation for studying Persian.

Table 4.1 shows the range of participants' age at the three universities. The participants varied from freshmen to seniors and ranged in age from 17 to 59, with the average being 22. For the three settings, the mean distribution as well as minimum age (17-18) and maximum age (50-59) of the respondents seems to be reasonably equal, although UCLA has a somewhat higher mean age.

Table 4.1: Age

	M	***SD***	**Min**	**Max**
Total Group	22.1	6.0	17	59
UC Berkeley	21.8	5.7	18	50
UC LA	23.2	6.6	18	53
UT Austin	21.3	5.6	17	59

Figure 4.1: Age



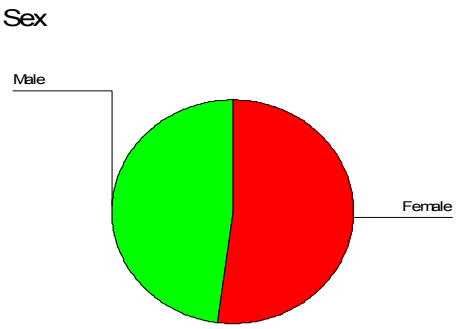
According to Table 4.2 below, a higher percentage of the participants (59.5%) from UC Berkley were men, while 40.5% were women. The percentage of female participants was higher at UCLA (56.5%) and UT (53.7%).

Table 4.2: Sex

(Unit: %)

	M	**F**
Total Group	48.2	51.8
UC Berkeley	59.5	40.5
UC LA	43.5	56.5
UT Austin	46.3	53.7

Figure 4.2: Sex



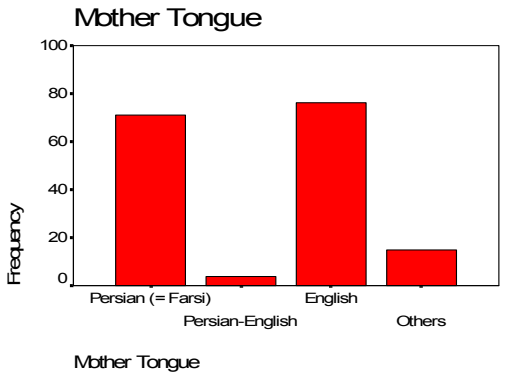
As found in Table 4.3, a higher percentage of the participants (59.7%) from UT Austin reported Persian as their mother tongue, while 29.9% reported English as their mother tongue and the rest reported other languages. The percentage for UT Austin "Persian as the mother tongue" is relatively higher than that found at UCB (56.8%) or at UCLA (48.4%).

Table 4.3: Mother Tongue

(Unit: %)

	PERSIAN (=Farsi)	**Persian-English**	**English**	**Others**
Total Group	42.8	2.4	45.8	9.0
UC Berkeley	56.8	5.4	35.1	2.7
UC LA	48.4	1.6	37.1	12.9
UT Austin	59.7	1.5	29.9	9.0

Figure 4.3: Mother Tongue



Comparing participants' responses about "mother tongue" and "second generation Iranian-American" shown in Table 4.4 below, interesting results were found in the three different settings (UB, UCLA, UT). All participants from UT who reported Persian as their mother tongue (59.7%), also reported their status as being second generation Iranian-Americans. Similarly, of the 48.4% participants at UCLA who reported Persian as their mother tongue, 41.9% of the total professed that they were second generation Iranian-Americans. At UCB, however, 56.8% reported Persian as their mother tongue but only 37.8% of the total reported that they are second generation Iranian-Americans.

The reason for this discrepancy could be in how the respondents viewed themselves in regards to being labeled as second generation Iranian-American. Even though many could be considered as fitting under the general label of "second generation", many could have been born in Iran and moved to the United States in their infancy or beyond. These may or may not view themselves as the

second generation, deeming that the term second generation is fully applicable only to those who were actually born on US soil.

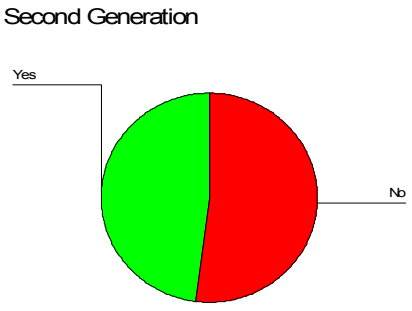
Another possible reason could be due to what is implied by the phrase "second generation Iranian-American". If only one parent is of Iranian descent, will the offspring see themselves as "second generation Iranian-Americans" or not? In general, it is this author's belief that the label "second generation Iranian-American" is not as clear-cut as it may appear on the surface. It seems likely, however, that Iranian-Americans at UCB may have had somewhat different backgrounds than the Iranian-Americans at the other universities.

Table 4.4: Are you second generation Iranian-American?

(Unit: %)

	YES	No
Total Group	48.2	51.8
UC Berkeley	37.8	62.2
UC LA	41.9	58.1
UT Austin	59.7	40.3

Figure 4.4: Second Generation Iranian-American



As shown in Table 4.5, the students' range of experience with Persian language study was from 0 month to 228 months with an average of 18.1 months. The probable cause for this inconsistency could be that some respondents misinterpreted the question "Number of months studying Persian" to mean number of months exposed to Persian.

It is also possible that there is no placement test requirement for Persian courses offered in the universities surveyed in this study. As it is the experience of this author, as a Persian instructor, there are not generally placement testing requirements in place for students who register for Persian language classes. Even highly skilled Persian speakers are sometimes not barred from taking first semester Persian. Such students may be given the option of taking a test for credit/noncredit or sitting in the class and earning an A. Therefore, even advanced students who may have graduated from high school in Iran and then transferred to a university in the US or those who were tutored in the US for many years before entering the university, may be allowed to register for first or second year Persian.

Table 4.5: Number of Months Studying Persian

(Unit: Month(s))

	M	***SD***	**Min**	**Max**
Total Group	18.1	36.3	0	228
UC Berkeley	17.4	34.6	0	206
UC LA	21.0	42.8	0	228
UT Austin	13.8	28.9	0	182

Figure 4.5: Number of Months Studying Persian

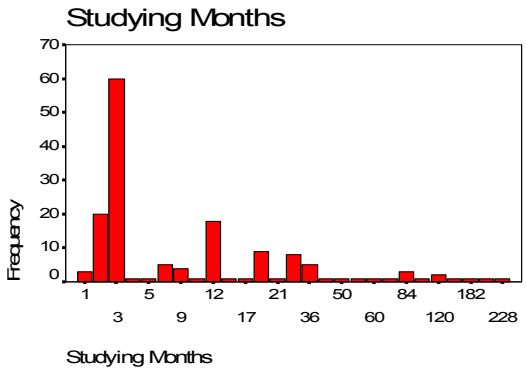


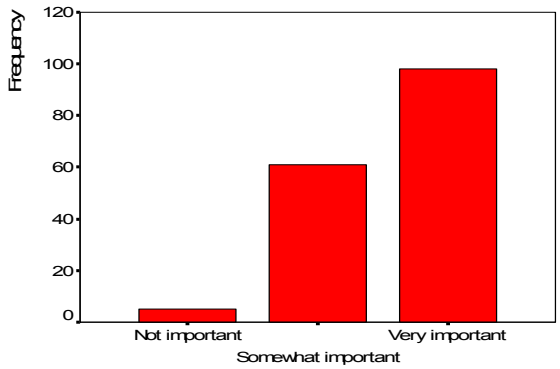
Table 4.6 displays beliefs of participants regarding the importance of becoming proficient in the Persian language. Of the 166 subjects, 59% felt that it is very important to do so while 36.7% said that it is somewhat important for them to become proficient in Persian. Only 3% reported that it was not important for them to become proficient in Persian. Thus almost all of the subjects valued learning Persian. In the case of heritage speakers, this might be due to the following two factors: valuing Persian mainly because of the parents' influence, or valuing Persian as a language to communicate with relatives in Iran.

Table 4.6: How important is it for you to become proficient in Persian?

(Unit: %)

	NOT IMPORTANT	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Missing
Total Group	3.0	36.7	59.0	1.2
UC Berkeley	2.7	35.1	59.5	2.7
UC LA	1.6	35.5	62.9	0.0
UT Austin	4.5	38.8	55.2	1.5

Figure 4.6: Importance of Being Proficient in Persian



When asked about their proficiency level in Persian compared to other students in their class (Table 4.7), 8.4% considered their Persian proficiency level as "poor", 28.3% as "fair", 47.6% as "good" and 14.5% as "excellent".

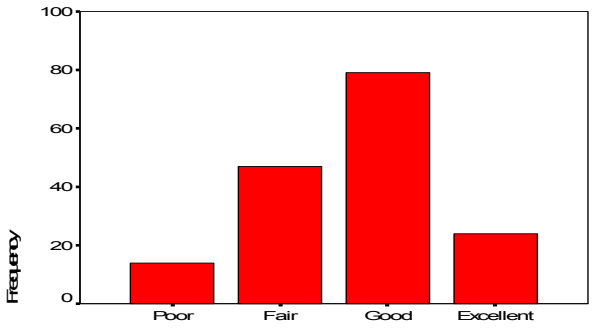
Table 4.7: So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to other students in your class?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	8.4	28.3	47.6	14.5	1.2
UC Berkeley	8.1	24.3	48.6	16.2	2.7

UC LA	4.8	30.6	54.8	9.7	0.0
UT Austin	11.9	28.4	40.3	17.9	1.5

Figure 4.7: Comparison of Overall Proficiency in Persian to Other Students



In addition, in response to the item comparing their Persian proficiency level to those of native speakers (Table 4.8), 38% evaluated their Persian proficiency level as "poor", 36.7% as "fair", 22.3% as "good" and 1.2% as "excellent".

The resulting discrepancy between self-evaluated performances (comparison with a classmate vs. comparison with a native speaker) points to the possibility of respondents visualizing an ideal, abstract, and "super" native speaker. Whereas in comparing themselves with an actual classmate with whom they are closely associated and with whose performance they are quite familiar, they lower the projected gap in performance in their minds. This may also be a reasonable response for someone who is a language learner.

Table 4.8: So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to native speakers of Persian?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	**FAIR**	**Good**	**Excellent**	Missing
Total Group	38.0	36.7	22.3	1.2	1.2
UC Berkeley	32.4	37.8	21.6	5.4	2.7
UC LA	33.9	37.1	29.0	0.0	0.0
UT Austin	44.8	35.8	16.4	0.0	3.0

Figure 4.8: Comparison of Overall Proficiency in Persian to Native Speakers

According to Tables 4.9 & 4.10 below, almost half of the participants claimed that they expect their proficiency level to rise by the end of their current course and become even higher after two years of Persian language instruction.

Table 4.9: By the end of this course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	3.0	28.9	51.8	15.1	1.2
UC Berkeley	10.8	24.3	43.2	18.9	2.7
UC LA	0.0	22.6	59.7	17.7	0.0
UT Austin	1.5	37.3	49.3	10.4	1.5

Figure 4.9: Expected Level of Proficiency by the End of the Course

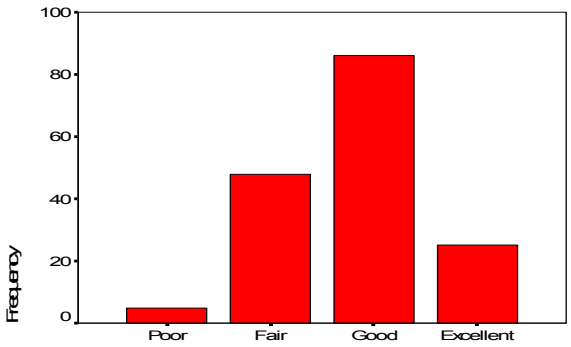
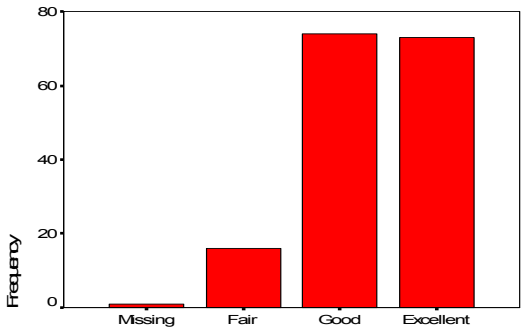


Table 4.10: After two years of instruction what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	0.0	9.6	44.6	44.0	1.2
UC Berkeley	0.0	16.2	51.4	29.7	0.0
UC LA	0.0	4.8	41.9	53.2	0.0
UT Austin	0.0	10.4	43.3	43.3	3.0

Figure 4.10: Expected Level of Proficiency by the End of the Two-Year Instruction



Looking more closely at the data from UCLA, there is a higher percentage of respondents who chose "good" (59.7%) and "excellent" (53.2%) as compared to the other two surveyed settings, and a lower percentage from UCLA selected "poor" (0%) and "fair" (4.8%). Overall, the respondents from UCLA display more positive opinions toward their expected level of proficiency. This might be due to the possibility that their confidence in themselves, their teachers and their program is high as compared to learners at the other two universities or to differences in their backgrounds.

Descriptive Analyses of the BALLI

Tables 4.12 through 4.16 present the frequency of student responses in percentages, means and standard deviations in each area of learner beliefs about language learning on the BALLI. Using Horwitz's (1987) categories, they illustrate the five major areas in the BALLI: (1) the difficulty of language

learning; (2) foreign language aptitude; (3) the nature of language learning; (4) learning and communication strategies; and (5) motivations and expectations.

Descriptive statistics were computed on the students' responses to the BALLI items, which were included in the second section of the questionnaire. These analyses were done to address the first research question: "What beliefs about language learning do Persian language learners hold in the United States?"

General BALLI Responses

The results of the BALLI responses are reported below. Table 4.11 shows the mean of each subgroup of BALLI items and its rank in frequency. The highest mean belongs to "motivation and expectation" category; while the lowest belongs to "the difficulty of language learning".

Table 4.11 BALLI Categories and Frequencies

Beliefs	Mean	Rank
The Difficulty of Language Learning	3.21	5
Foreign Language Aptitude	3.33	2
The Nature of Language Learning	3.31	3
Learning and Communication Strategies	3.25	4
Motivation and Expectations	3.63	1

Comparison of BALLI Responses

The results of the comparisons of the BALLI items are reported below. Additionally, in some cases, the results are presented and compared discretely, as

collected in the three separate settings.[1] The rationale for this is to elaborate on any discrepancies or significant divergence among the groups. Closer examination of each BALLI item suggested that the participants tended to hold certain beliefs much more frequently than others. Tables 4.12 to 4.16 below present the most and the least strongly held beliefs.

The Difficulty of Language Learning

Regarding the nature of language learning as stated in Table 4.12, most participants either agreed (48.2%) or strongly agreed (40.4%) that some languages are easier than the others. More than half of participants (56.6%) considered Persian as a language of medium difficulty, 24.7% considered it difficult, and only 9.6% though it was easy. However, these participants mostly believed that they would learn to speak Persian very well.

When asked, "If someone spent one hour a day learning the Persian language, how long would it take them to speak the language fluently?", their answers were less than a year (12.7%), one to two years (16.3%), three to five years (42.2%), and five to ten years (19.3%). In addition, 9.6% said that you can't learn Persian in one hour a day. Most of the participants disagreed that it is easier to read and write than to speak and understand Persian. Likewise, almost half of the participants (45.2%) disagreed that it is easier to speak than understand Persian.

[1] See Appendix F for the BALLI responses from each setting.

Table 4.12: BALLI Responses – The Difficulty of Language Learning.

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.								
	Overall	2.4	3.6	5.4	48.2	40.4	4.20	0.88
4. The Persian language is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) a language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, 5) very easy language.								
	Overall	4.8	24.7	56.6	9.6	4.2	2.84	0.83
6. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well.								
	Overall	0.6	6.0	12.0	40.4	41.0	4.15	0.90
14. If someone spent one hour a day learning the Persian language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent? 1) less than a year, 2) 1–2 years, 3) 3–5 years, 4) 5–10 years, 5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.								
	Overall	12.7	16.3	42.2	19.3	9.6	2.97	1.12
24. It is easier to speak than understand the Persian language.								
	Overall	16.3	45.2	24.1	12.0	2.4	2.39	0.98
28. It is easier to read and write the Persian language than to speak and understand it.								
	Overall	14.5	33.7	25.3	19.3	7.2	2.71	1.15

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Regarding the difficulty of language learning, the three groups yielded somewhat different answers. For instance, when asked how long it would take one to speak the language fluently if someone spent one hour a day learning a language, students' responses were as follows for UCB, UCLA and UT Austin students: less than a year (2.7%, 11.3%, 19.4%), one to two years (18.9%, 22.6%, 9.0%), three to five years (56.8%, 41.9%, 34.3%), and five to ten years (16.2%, 12.9%, 26.9%). 5.4% from UCB, 11.3% from UCLA, and 10.4% from UT thought that one cannot learn a language in one hour a day. The highest percentage in each group disagreed that it is easier to read and write Persian than

to speak and understand it (UCB: 40.5%, UCLA: 35.5%, UT: 28.4%) but the percentage who endorsed that option ranged from 28% to 40%. Also, in each group approximately half of the participants disagreed that it is easier to speak than understand the Persian language. The motivation for such divergence within the responses may be due to the strong number of native speakers of Persian present in the surveyed groups.

Most students in the three groups (UCB, UCLA, and UT) shared the same opinion about the difficulty of Persian language and the time required to learn it. For the remaining areas of the BALLI, the students' responses were also similar, which suggests that students from different settings can have comparable beliefs about language learning.

Foreign Language Aptitude

In the area of foreign language aptitude, shown in Table 4.13 below, the points of views were more diverse, and sometimes paradoxical. These learners agreed that some people are born with a special ability for learning foreign languages (38.6%), but they also agreed that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language well (48.8%). Most of the participants (71.1%) agreed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language, and almost half (44.6%) agreed with the statement that "it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one".

The responses to items 5, 15, and 22 leaned mostly towards neutral. Participants (65.7%) neither agree nor disagree that people from their culture are

good at learning foreign languages. They also gave impartial responses to the statements that they have foreign language aptitude (41%), and that women are better than men at learning foreign languages (49.4%).

Table 4.13: BALLI Responses – Foreign Language Aptitude.

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.								
	Overall	[b]1.8	3.6	3.6	19.9	71.1	4.55	0.87
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.								
	Overall	6.6	11.4	28.3	38.6	15.1	3.44	1.09
5. People from my culture are good at learning foreign languages.								
	Overall	5.4	15.1	65.7	12.0	1.8	2.90	0.74
10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.								
	Overall	1.8	6.0	25.9	44.6	21.7	3.78	0.92
15. I have foreign language aptitude.								
	Overall	2.4	7.8	41.0	36.1	12.7	3.49	0.90
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.								
	Overall	19.3	25.9	49.4	4.2	1.2	2.42	0.89
29. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.								
	Overall	24.7	34.7	36.1	4.8	0.0	2.21	0.87
32. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.								
	Overall	6.0	13.3	42.2	34.3	4.2	3.17	0.93
34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.								
	Overall	2.4	4.8	12.0	48.8	31.9	4.03	0.92

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Comparing the three groups in this category, most students from the three universities agreed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign

language (64.9% at UCB, 64.5% at UCLA, 80.6% at UT). This number was much higher for UT than for UCB and UCLA. Many students agreed with the notion that some people (32.4%, 37.1%, 43.3%) have a special ability for learning a foreign language and less than half of them (32.4%, 29.0%, 44.8%) agreed that they personally had that ability.

The majority of participants from all three universities agreed that it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another (56.8%, 41.9%, 40.3%) with a higher percentage from UCB. However, they were mostly neutral about the idea of women being better than men at learning foreign languages. They did not agree that people who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages (37.8%, 29.0%, 37.3%). About half (51.4%, 51.6%, 44.8%) of the participants in each group agreed that anyone can learn a foreign language.

The Nature of Language Learning

On the subject of the nature of language learning (Table 4.14), a good number of participants agreed that it is necessary to know the foreign language culture in order to speak well (36.1%), and that it is best to learn a foreign language in the foreign country (47%). Many also agreed that learning a foreign language is different than the other academic subjects (47.6%). However, 48.2% disagreed that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.

The “agree” responses almost equaled the “disagree” responses for items 16 and 20. Among the participants, 30.7% agreed that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words. Conversely, 35.5% of the participants disagreed with this statement.

Similarly, among the participants, 34.3% agreed that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules. On the other hand, 30.1% of the participants disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.14: BALLI Responses – The Nature of Language Learning

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
8. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.								
	Overall	4.2	18.7	21.1	36.1	19.9	3.50	1.13
11. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.								
	Overall	0.6	1.8	15.7	34.9	47.0	4.26	0.83
16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.								
	Overall	5.4	35.5	24.1	30.7	4.2	2.93	1.02
20. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.								
	Overall	4.8	30.1	27.1	34.3	3.6	3.02	0.99
25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.								
	Overall	3.0	6.0	11.4	47.6	31.9	3.99	0.98
26. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.								
	Overall	20.5	48.2	22.3	9.0	0.0	2.20	0.87

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

When comparing participants' beliefs across the three groups, almost half of the participants at UCB and UT (54.1%, 52.2%) thought that it is best to learn a foreign language in the foreign country, while 46.8% of the participants at UCLA thought the opposite. Comparing the role of the new vocabulary and grammar in learning a foreign language, participants thought that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules (32.4% at UCB, 37.1% at UCLA, 32.8% at UT) than new vocabulary words (24.3% at UCB, 32.3% at UCLA, 32.8% at UT).

Almost half of the students agreed that learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects (62.2% at UCB, 46.8% at UCLA, 40.3% at UT). While only 21.6% of the participants at UCB and 24.2% at UCLA strongly agreed that learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subject, twice the number of participants at UT (44.8%) strongly agreed with this item. Similarly, almost half of the participants in the three settings (59.5% at UCB, 41.9% at UCLA, 47.8% at UT) disagreed that the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning how to translate from English.

Learning and Communication Strategies

Concerning the area of communication strategies (Table 4.15), 63.9% of the participants felt that it is important to repeat and practice when speaking Persian. They also agreed on the importance of an excellent pronunciation (45.8%).

Exactly half of the participants (50%) disagreed that they shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until they can say it correctly and they also said that it's O.K. to guess if they don't know a word in the Persian language. Also among the participants, 41.6% stated that they feel self–conscious speaking the Persian language in front of other people.

Table 4.15: BALLI Responses – Learning and Communication Strategies

ITEM		[a]1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA	M	SD
7. It is important to speak the Persian language with an excellent accent.								
	Overall	1.2	12.7	18.7	45.8	21.7	3.74	0.98
9. You shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until you can say it correctly.								
	Overall	37.3	50.0	7.2	4.2	1.2	1.82	0.83
12. If I heard someone speaking the Persian language, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.								
	Overall	11.4	33.1	30.1	17.5	7.8	2.77	1.11
13. It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in the Persian language.								
	Overall	3.0	10.8	22.3	47.0	16.9	3.64	0.99
17. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.								
	Overall	1.8	0.0	3.6	30.7	63.9	4.55	0.74
18. I feel self–conscious speaking the Persian language in front of other people.								
	Overall	12.7	16.9	15.1	41.6	13.9	3.27	1.26
19. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.								
	Overall	9.0	28.9	19.3	31.9	10.8	3.07	1.19
21. It is important to practice in the language laboratory.								
	Overall	5.4	13.9	45.2	28.3	7.2	3.17	0.97

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

By comparing the three universities, it appears that almost all the participants believed that it is important to repeat and practice a great deal (54.1% at UCB, 61.3% at UCLA, 71.6% at UT). However, almost half of the participants (45.2%) were neutral to the importance of practice with cassettes or tapes, possibly because they see these as out-dated media. Almost half of the participants at UCLA (51.6%) and UT (46.3%) agreed about the importance of excellent pronunciation. This statement less strongly supported by UCB participants (35.1%) but neither of the groups agreed that they should not say anything in Persian until they could say it correctly.

The possibility that if beginning students are permitted to make errors in Persian, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on was placidly supported by participants from UCLA (35.5%) and UT (34.3%) and even less supported by the participants from UCB (21.6%). Almost half of the participants (51.4% at UCB, 45.2% at UCLA, 46.3% at UT) in each group regarded guessing as acceptable, and almost the same number were against rigid error correction. On the other hand, almost half of the participants (41.6%) felt timid when speaking Persian with other people.

Motivation and Expectations

In the area of motivation and expectations, as presented in Table 4.16, 41% of the participants reported that they expected to ultimately learn Persian very well. They also agreed that they want to get to know people who speak

Persian as a native language (48.8%) and that if they get to speak the Persian language very well, they will have many opportunities to use it (45.8%). However, they neither agreed nor disagreed that by learning Persian very well, they would have more opportunities to get a good job.

The great majority of the participants in each group expressed their wish to learn Persian well. They either agreed (40.4%) or strongly agreed (41.0%) with this idea. Participants' responses mildly supported the statement that if they learn Persian very well, they will have better opportunities for getting a good job (38.0%). The same result was shown when asking them if people from their country think that it is important to speak a foreign language. On the other hand, they agreed with the idea that they would like to learn Persian to get to know native speakers.

Table 4.16: BALLI Responses – Motivation and Expectations

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
6. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well.								
	Overall	0.6	6.0	12.0	40.4	41.0	4.15	0.90
23. If I get to speak the Persian language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.								
	Overall	1.8	8.4	14.5	29.5	45.8	4.09	1.05
27. If I learn to speak the Persian language very well, it will help me get a good job.								
	Overall	10.8	25.3	38.0	21.1	4.8	2.84	1.04
30. People from my culture think that it is important to speak a foreign language.								
	Overall	6.0	9.6	34.9	32.5	16.9	3.45	1.07
31. I would like to learn the Persian language so that I can get to know its speakers better.								

	Overall	5.4	10.2	16.3	48.8	19.3	3.66	1.07

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Interestingly, more than half of the participants at UCLA and UT (53.2% & 52.2%) agreed with this idea; whereas, only 35.1% at UCB believed the same. According to the former groups' responses, their motivations were more integrative than instrumental.

Summary of the Comparison for the BALLI

In summary, the descriptive analysis of the BALLI shows only small differences among the three groups. Beliefs about language learning by all the participants of this study, based on their responses on the BALLI, are shown in Tables 4.17 through 4.21. The mean scores of overall beliefs and standard deviations were calculated for UCB, UCLA and UT to compare the differences between the three groups. As shown in Table 4.17, "belief" means were within the medium range for all three groups: 3.43% for UT, 3.27% for UCB and 3.31% for UCLA participants.

Table 4.17: Descriptive statistics for the Variables and Mean Difference of the Beliefs

Variables	Mean	SD	Min	Max
UCB	3.27	0.98	1.81 (19)	4.41 (1)
UCLA	3.31	0.98	1.69 (9)	4.55 (17)
UT/Austin	3.43	0.97	1.94 (9)	4.67 (1)

The differences in the five categories of beliefs between the three groups were also compared. As indicated in Table 4.18, only small differences among the three groups in the type of beliefs they hold are shown. A slightly higher percentage of beliefs by UT students than by UCB and UCLA students are indicated for most categories. UT participants reported holding higher percentage of beliefs in all five categories except "Foreign Language Aptitude" where UCLA got the highest mean.

Table 4.18: Differences in Mean and Standard Deviation of Overall Beliefs among the Five Categories.

Variables	Group	Mean	SD
DLL	UCB	3.17	0.89
	UCLA	3.12	1.03
	UT/Austin	3.32	0.96
FLA	UCB	3.30	0.90
	UCLA	3.35	0.92
	UT/Austin	3.33	0.88
NLL	UCB	3.25	0.95
	UCLA	3.26	0.96
	UT/Austin	3.40	0.98
LCS	UCB	3.19	1.01
	UCLA	3.19	1.02
	UT/Austin	3.35	0.99
MOT	UCB	3.42	1.13
	UCLA	3.65	0.96
	UT/Austin	3.75	1.02

Note: DLL = Difficulty of Language Learning; FLA = Foreign Language Aptitude;
NLL = Nature of Language Learning; LCS = Learning and Communication Strategies;
MOT = Motivation and Expectations

The individual belief items by all three groups, based on their responses on the BALLI, are shown in Tables 4.19 through 4.21. Table 4.19 presents belief categories which fell into the high range. Items 3, 1, 11, 17 and 6 from each

category were among the most common beliefs by all participants and were held more than other beliefs: a DLL item (Item 3), “Some languages are easier to learn than others” (M: 4.20); an FLA item (Item 1), “It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language” (M: 4.55); an NLL item (Item 11), “It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country” (M: 4.26), an LCS item (Item 17), “It is important to repeat and practice a lot” (M: 4.55); and an MOT item (Item 6). “I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well” (M: 4.15).

Table 4.19: Reported Beliefs Categorized by High Mean Range (M: 3.5 or above)

Category	Item (Mean)
DLL	3 (4.20), 6 (4.15)
FLA	1 (4.55), 10 (3.78), 34 (4.03)
NLL	8 (3.50). 11 (4.26), 25 (3.99)
LCS	7 (3.74), 13 (3.64), 17 (4.55)
MOT	6 (4.15), 23 (4.09), 31 (3.66)

Note: DLL = Difficulty of Language Learning; FLA = Foreign Language Aptitude; NLL = Nature of Language Learning; LCS = Learning and Communication Strategies; MOT = Motivation and Expectations

More belief items fall within the medium range for the participants of this study (Table 4.20). More items from FLA and LCS were in the medium range than other kinds of beliefs. Some of the beliefs which fall within the medium-high range were: a DLL item (Item 14), “If someone spend one hour a day learning the Persian language, it would take him/her 3 to 5 years to become fluent” (M: 2.97); an FLA item (Item 15), “I have foreign language aptitude” (M: 3.49); an NLL

item (Item 20), “Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules” (M: 3.02), an LCS item (Item 18), “I feel self-conscious speaking the Persian language in front of other people” (M: 3.27); and an MOT item (Item 30). “People from my culture think that it is important to speak a foreign language” (M: 3.45).

Table 4.20: Reported Beliefs Categorized by Medium Mean Range (M: 2.5-3.4)

Category	Item (Mean)
DLL	4 (2.84), 14 (2.97), 28 (2.71)
FLA	2 (3.44), 5 (2.90), 15 (3.49), 32 (3.17)
NLL	16 (2.93). 20 (3.02)
LCS	12 (2.77), 18 (3.27), 19 (3.07), 21 (3.17)
MOT	27 (2.84), 30 (3.45)

Note: DLL = Difficulty of Language Learning; FLA = Foreign Language Aptitude; NLL = Nature of Language Learning; LCS = Learning and Communication Strategies; MOT = Motivation and Expectations

As seen in Table 4.21 below, there are fewer items within the low range than high and medium range of beliefs. This shows that participants of this study hold a relatively medium percentage of beliefs (M: 3.34). Items 24, 29, 26 and 9 from each category were among the least common beliefs by all the participants and were held less than other beliefs: a DLL item (Item 24), “It is easier to speak than to understand the Persian language” (M: 2.39); an FLA item (Item 29), “People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages” (M: 2.21); an NLL item (Item 26), “Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English” (M: 2.20) and an LCS item (Item 9), “You shouldn’t say anything in the Persian language until you can say it

correctly" (M: 1.82). Interestingly, no item from the category of "motivation and expectations" falls within the "low belief range".

Table 4.21: Reported Beliefs Categorized by Low Mean Range (M: 2.4 or below)

Category	Item (Mean)
DLL	24 (2.39)
FLA	22 (2.42), 29 (2.21)
NLL	26 (2.20)
LCS	9 (1.82)
MOT	N/A

Note: DLL = Difficulty of Language Learning; FLA = Foreign Language Aptitude; NLL = Nature of Language Learning; LCS = Learning and Communication Strategies; MOT = Motivation and Expectations

In summary, almost half of the participants considered Persian as having medium learning difficulty, possibly because of the different alphabet and word order between Persian and English. They felt that it would take three to five years to achieve proficiency in the Persian language. On the other hand, the three groups were different in the perceived difficulties of language skills. About half (56.8%, 44.8%) of the participants at UCB and UT disagreed that speaking is easier than listening, only 38.7% of UCLA participants disagreed.

While American Persian language learners endorsed the concept of foreign language aptitude, the possibility that children are better language learners than adults and agreed that people who already speak a foreign language would learn and speak another one better, they disagreed with the idea that certain groups of people, such as people good at math or science were better or worse at

language learning. Almost half of the participants (54.1% at UCB, 48.4% at UCLA, 47.8% at UT) from all three groups were neutral to the possibility of female superiority to male at learning foreign languages. A similar number of participants (51.4% at UCB, 51.6% at UCLA, 44.8% at UT) agreed that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

In the area of strategies, the importance of repetition and practice and of excellent pronunciation in speaking was supported by good number of participants in each group. All the participants held quite similar beliefs regarding guessing, correctness and anxiety. The participants in all three groups were less likely to enjoy practicing Persian with Persian native speakers they met.

A good number of the participants in each group reported strong motivations for learning Persian, particularly to get to know native speakers of Persian better, but not in order to get a good job. Eventually, they would have many opportunities to use their Persian language skills.

Descriptive Analyses of the SILL

In general, participants of this study reported using a variety of learning strategies to learn Persian. The following discussion of learning strategies is based on the descriptive analysis of the subjects' responses to the SILL. The frequencies of responses (in percentages), means and standard deviations for all the SILL items are presented in the following tables and charts.

Descriptive analyses of the participants' responses to the SILL were conducted to examine the strategies which were most and least frequently used by learners of Persian as a foreign language. The five point Likert-scale items of the SILL ranges from (1) never or almost never to (5) always or almost always. In general, high means are considered to be in the range of 3.5 to 5.0, medium 2.5 to 3.4, and low 1.0 to 2.4. The overall frequency of strategy use (the overall SILL mean) was 3.13 which indicates moderate usage of learning strategies by the participants.

According to Oxford's classification of learning strategies (1990a), the SILL items are divided into six subgroups; (1) memory strategies (items 1 to 15), (2) cognitive strategies (items 16 to 40), (3) compensation strategies (items 41 to 48), (4) metacognitive strategies (items 49 to 64), (5) affective strategies (items 65 to 71), and (6) social strategies (items 72 to 80).

General SILL Responses

The results of the SILL responses are reported below. Table 4.22 shows the mean of each strategy subgroup and its rank in frequency of strategy use. The highest mean belongs to the "motivation and expectation" category; while the lowest belongs to "the difficulty of language learning". The most frequently used strategies were compensation and social strategies followed by metacognitive and memory strategies. The least frequently used strategies were affective strategies whose mean was far below the frequencies of the other strategies. As mentioned in the previous chapter, a mean score in the range above 3.5 on all SILL items is

considered to reflect high use of a given strategy, 2.5 to 3.4 indicates medium use, and below 2.4 shows low use of a strategy (Oxford, 1990).

Table 4.22 SILL Categories and Frequencies

Strategies	Mean	Rank
Memory	2.93	5
Cognitive	3.30	3
Compensation	3.47	1
Metacognitive	3.17	4
Affective	2.54	6
Social	3.41	2

Comparison of SILL Responses

The results of the comparison of the SILL responses are reported below. Additionally, in some cases, the results are presented and compared discretely, as collected in the three separate settings.[2] The rationale for this is to elaborate any discrepancies or significant divergence among the groups. Closer examination of each SILL item suggested that the participants tended to employ certain strategies much more frequently than others. Tables 4.23 to 4.28 below present the most and the least used strategies.

Memory Strategies

Among the strategies which were utilized by the participants, the memory strategies were ranked medium (#5). The mean average for this type of strategies

[2] See Appendix G for the SILL responses from each setting.

was calculated 2.93. Specifically, memory strategies involving “creating mental linkages” and “applying images and sounds” were frequently utilized by the subjects.

A closer look at Table 4.23 indicates that items 1, 7, 10, 13 and 15 were among the top five strategies which participants reported using. According to this table, participants (46.4%) created associations between new material and what they already knew. They also try to remember a word by making a clear mental image of it or by drawing a picture and to remember where the new word is located on the page, or where they first saw or heard it (M: 3.32%).

The other two memory strategies which were used relatively frequently included “visualizing the spelling of the new word” (M: 3.52%) and “going back to refresh their memory of things they earned much earlier” (M: 3.4%). Among the participants, 56.7% reported that they visualize the spelling of the new word in their minds. Also 51.2% stated that they usually go back to refresh their memory of things they earned much earlier.

On the contrary, items 12 and 14 were seldom used by the participants. These include memory strategies associated with structured reviewing and using physical response or sensation such as acting out the new words. 65.3% of the participants stated that they do not physically act out the new word. Along the same line, 73.5% of the participants reported that they do not plan their reviewing sessions efficiently.

Table 4.23: SILL Responses – Memory Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
When learning a new word . . .								
1. I create associations between new material and what I already know.								
	Total	[b]2.4	2.4	22.9	46.4	25.9	3.91	0.89
2. I put the new word in a sentence so I can remember it.								
	Total	5.4	29.5	30.7	28.3	6.0	3.00	1.02
3. I place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way (for example, words related to clothing, or feminine nouns).								
	Total	7.2	30.1	27.1	30.1	5.4	2.96	1.06
4. I associate the sound of the new word with the sound of a familiar word.								
	Total	9.0	22.3	24.7	31.1	12.7	3.16	1.18
5. I use rhyming to remember it.								
	Total	28.9	39.2	17.5	11.4	3.0	2.20	1.08
6. I remember the word by making a clear mental image of it or by drawing a picture.								
	Total	17.5	28.9	27.1	18.1	8.4	2.71	1.20
7. I visualize the spelling of the new word in my mind.								
	Total	4.2	14.5	24.7	38.6	18.1	3.52	1.08
8. I use a combination of sounds and images to remember the new word.								
	Total	6.6	19.3	31.3	33.7	9.0	3.19	1.06
9. I list all the other words I know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show relationships.								
	Total	50.6	31.3	9.0	6.6	2.4	1.79	1.02
10. I remember where the new word is located on the page, or where I first saw or heard it.								
	Total	6.0	19.9	24.7	34.9	14.5	3.32	1.13
11. I use flash cards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other.								
	Total	21.7	24.7	18.1	19.3	16.3	2.84	1.39
12. I physically act out the new word.								
	Total	65.3	27.1	6.0	3.0	0.6	1.51	0.79
When learning a new material . . .								
13. I review often.								
	Total	4.8	15.1	39.2	31.3	9.6	3.26	0.99
14. I schedule my reviewing so that the review sessions are initially close together in time and gradually become more widely spread apart.								

	Total	31.3	42.2	19.9	6.0	0.6	2.02	0.90
15. I go back to refresh my memory of things I earned much earlier.								
	Total	5.4	11.4	31.9	40.4	10.8	3.40	1.01

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

For memory strategies (items 1 to 15), most of the participants from all three groups reported that they always or almost always create associations between new material and what they already know (UCB 62%, UCLA 74%, UT 76%). As it can be seen, more students from UCLA (74%) and UT (76%) than UCB (62%) reported that they create associations between new material and what they already know. Conversely, more participants from UCB (64.8%) than UCLA (51.6%) and UT (56.7%) reported that they visualize the spelling of the new word.

On the other hand, more participants from UCLA (61.3%) than from UT (43.3%) and UCB (45.9%) reported that they don't list all the other words they know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show relationships. Similarly, 64.9% of UCB participants and 64.5% of UCLA participants had never used physical action to remember new English words, while, 59.7% of UT participants agreed with the above statement.

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies, in general, ranked third (medium high) in frequency as seen in Table 4.24.; however, some cognitive strategies were among the most

used strategies. These were cognitive strategies involving “practicing” and “creating structure for input and output”.

As stated in Table 4.24, items 17-20, 31-32 and 36-40 were among the highly used strategies by the participants. The participants frequently practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language and imitate the way native speakers talk (M: 3.64%), read a story or a dialogue several times until they can understand it (M: 3.60). Items 31-32 are instances of strategies involving “practicing” and “creating structure” for input and output. 57.8% of participants have reported that they use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help them use Persian, while 66.2% take notes in class in the Persian language.

In addition, they repeatedly look for patterns in the Persian language (M: 3.92%), and for similarities and contrasts between Persian and their own (M: 3.81). 58.5% of the participants try to understand what they have heard or read without translating it word–for–word into their own language; while, 60.3% develop their own understanding of how the Persian language works, even if sometimes they have to revise their understanding based on new information. Interestingly, none of the items in this category was reported as being used infrequently which means “generally not used” or “never or almost never used”.

Table 4.24: SILL Responses – Cognitive Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
16. I say or write new expressions repeatedly to practice them.								
	Total	5.4	15.1	32.5	33.7	13.3	3.34	1.06
17. I imitate the way native speakers talk.								
	Total	4.5	15.1	21.1	31.9	27.7	3.64	1.16
18. I read a story or a dialogue several times until I can understand it.								
	Total	2.4	9.0	29.5	44.6	14.5	3.60	0.93
19. I revise what I write in the new language to improve my writing.								
	Total	6.0	26.5	25.3	30.1	12.0	3.16	1.13
20. I practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language.								
	Total	5.4	12.0	22.9	39.2	20.5	3.57	1.11
21. I use idioms or other routines in the new language.								
	Total	7.2	16.9	40.4	30.1	5.4	3.10	0.99
22. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.								
	Total	6.0	19.9	33.7	29.5	10.8	3.19	1.07
23. I initiate conversations in the new language.								
	Total	10.8	24.1	26.5	31.9	6.6	2.99	1.13
24. I watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.								
	Total	6.6	19.3	22.9	31.3	16.9	3.27	1.23
25. I try to think in the new language.								
	Total	10.2	20.5	24.1	27.1	18.1	3.22	1.25
26. I attend and participate in out–of–class events where the new language is spoken.								
	Total	7.8	24.7	36.1	18.7	12.7	3.04	1.12
27. I read for pleasure in the new language.								
	Total	21.1	30.1	28.3	15.1	5.4	2.54	1.14
28. I write personal notes, messages, letters, or reports in the new language.								
	Total	20.5	27.7	27.1	17.5	7.2	2.63	1.20
29. I skim the reading passage first to get the main idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.								
	Total	11.4	27.1	28.3	27.1	6.0	2.89	1.11
30. I seek specific details in what I hear or read.								
	Total	3.0	15.7	28.3	40.4	12.7	3.44	1.00
31. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.								
	Total	7.2	13.9	21.1	30.7	27.1	3.57	1.23
32. I take notes in class in the new language.								
	Total	7.8	8.4	17.5	31.3	34.9	3.77	1.23

33. I make summaries of new language material.								
	Total	13.9	27.1	36.1	14.5	8.4	2.77	1.12
34. I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.								
	Total	6.6	13.9	45.2	25.9	8.4	3.16	0.99
35. I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which I understand.								
	Total	4.8	17.5	27.7	38.0	12.0	3.35	1.06
36. I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.								
	Total	3.6	13.3	15.7	33.1	34.3	3.81	1.15
37. I try to understand what I have heard or read without translating it word–for–word into my own language.								
	Total	3.0	15.7	22.9	39.2	19.3	3.56	1.06
38. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.								
	Total	2.4	11.4	35.5	30.7	19.9	3.54	1.01
39. I look for patterns in the new language.								
	Total	3.0	4.8	19.9	42.2	30.1	3.92	0.98
40. I develop my own understanding of how the language works, even if sometimes I have to revise my understanding based on new information.								
	Total	3.6	8.4	27.7	39.8	20.5	3.65	1.01

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Regarding cognitive strategies (items 16 to 40), a large number of participants from all three groups responded that they practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language. However, the largest group belongs to UT (64.2%) and the smallest group belongs to UCB (51.3%). Likewise, more students from UT (76.2%) than UCLA (66%) and UCB (75.6%) stated that they look for the patterns in the new language. Also, 65.6% of the UT participants reported that they use repeating and practicing; whereas, 48.6% of the UCB and 58% of the UCLA participants agreed with the above notion.

On the contrary, more participants from UCB stated that they use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries (64.8%) and taking notes in

class in the new language (70%). In addition, more participants from UCB reported using analyzing and reasoning strategies than from UCLA and UT. For instance, 64.8% of the participants from UCB reported that they are cautious about transferring words and concepts from their language to the new language; whereas, 46.7% from UCLA and 46.3% from UT agreed with this idea. Similarly, while 70% of the UCB participants stated that they develop their own understating of how the new language works, only 59.7% from UCLA and 55% from UT reported the same result.

Compensation Strategies

Among the strategies which were most utilized by the participants, eight out of 80 belonged to the compensation category which are reported in Table 4.25 and ranked first. Most of these strategies ranked very high comparing to the strategies belonged to the other categories. Specifically, compensation strategies involving “guessing from the context” (M: 3.96), “getting help” (M: 4.01), and “using synonyms” (M: 4.01) were highly used by the participants.

While 74.7% of the participants reported that they guess the general meaning of the words by using any clue they find, 75.9% stated that they ask the other person to tell them the right word if they cannot think of it in a conversation. They also reported that they use synonyms whenever they cannot think of the correct word or expression (74.7%).

On the other hand, the least used strategies from this category were “coining words” and “selecting the topic”. 70.5% of the participants said that they

neither make up new words if they do not know the right ones nor direct the conversation to a topic for which they know the words (40.4%).

Table 4.25: SILL Responses – Compensation Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
41. When I do not understand all the words I read or hear, I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the context or situation.								
	Total	3.6	3.6	18.1	42.2	32.5	3.96	0.99
42. I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.								
	Total	3.0	13.9	24.7	40.4	18.1	3.57	1.04
43. In a conversation I anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.								
	Total	3.6	15.7	32.5	34.9	13.3	3.39	1.02
44. If I am speaking and cannot think of the right expression, I use gestures or switch back to my own language momentarily.								
	Total	2.4	6.6	21.1	39.8	30.1	3.89	0.99
45. I ask the other person to tell me the right word If I cannot think of it in a conversation.								
	Total	2.4	6.0	15.7	39.8	36.1	4.01	0.99
46. When I cannot think of the correct expression to say or write, I find a different way to express the idea: for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea.								
	Total	1.2	7.8	16.3	38.0	36.7	4.01	0.98
47. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.								
	Total	25.9	44.6	12.7	10.8	6.0	2.27	1.14
48. I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words.								
	Total	13.3	27.1	33.7	18.7	7.2	2.80	1.12

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Concerning compensation strategies, a large number of all three groups reported using “synonyms” (UCB 75.7%, UCLA 79%, UT 70%) and “getting help” (UCB 78.4%, UCLA 72.6%, UT 77.6%). However, participants from UCLA reported using synonyms more than the other two groups. Among highly used compensation strategies, two strategies are more of interest for UT participants. More participants from UT stated that they use “guessing” (79%) and “mimes and gestures” (74.6%). Moreover, 73% of students from UCB and 71% of students from UCLA use “guessing”. Likewise, 67.5% of students from UCB and 66% of students from UCLA use “mimes and gestures”.

Metacognitive Strategies

The average mean for metacognitive strategies was 3.17 which put it in the fourth rank. This indicates a moderate use of metacognitive strategies by the participants. A closer look at Table 4.26 points out that participants tend to use strategies related to “self-monitoring” and “self-evaluating”. These are items 62-64.

Participants (66.3%) try to notice their language errors and find out reasons for them. They (65.9%) also learn from their mistakes in using the Persian language. Moreover, 51.2% of the participants evaluate the general progress they have made in learning the Persian language. From this category, item 57 was interestingly the only item which participants rarely report using. This involves “arranging and planning their learning”. They stated that they did not plan what they were going to accomplish in learning Persian each day or each week (62%).

Table 4.26: SILL Responses – Metacognitive Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
49. I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.								
	Total	15.1	27.1	28.3	22.9	6.6	2.79	1.15
50. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and put unrelated topics out of my mind.								
	Total	2.4	12.7	31.9	36.1	16.9	3.52	1.00
51. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, I focus the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds.								
	Total	4.8	15.7	33.7	25.9	19.9	3.40	1.12
52. I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.								
	Total	18.7	27.7	30.7	16.9	6.0	2.64	1.15
53. I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.								
	Total	13.3	24.1	24.9	21.1	6.6	2.84	1.11
54. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quiet and comfortable place to review.								
	Total	7.2	17.5	23.5	32.5	19.3	3.39	1.19
55. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.								
	Total	8.4	21.1	30.1	30.7	9.6	3.12	1.11
56. I plan my goals for language learning; for instance, how proficient I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.								
	Total	12.0	19.9	22.3	31.9	13.9	3.16	1.24
57. I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.								
	Total	30.7	31.3	21.1	9.6	7.2	2.31	1.21
58. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as giving a talk in the new language) by considering the nature of the task, what I have to know, and my current language skills.								
	Total	11.4	18.7	31.9	27.7	10.2	3.07	1.16
59. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, in a listening task I might need to listen for the general idea or for specific facts.								
	Total	6.6	16.9	30.1	34.3	12.0	3.28	1.09
60. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practice the new language.								
	Total	7.2	16.9	32.5	33.7	9.6	3.22	1.07
61. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.								

	Total	10.8	25.9	29.5	24.7	9.0	2.95	1.14
62. I try to notice my language errors and find out reasons for them.								
	Total	6.0	9.0	18.7	47.0	19.3	3.64	1.08
63. I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.								
	Total	1.8	4.8	17.5	48.2	17.7	3.95	0.90
64. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.								
	Total	5.4	14.5	28.9	39.2	12.0	3.38	1.05

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

Table 4.26 suggests frequent use of a large number of metacognitive strategies. More than half of the students from each group always or almost always try to notice their language errors and learn from their mistakes in using the new language. About 67.5% of UCB participants always or almost always try to notice their errors and find out reasons for them, and similarly 66% of the UCLA participants and 65.6% of the UT participants always or almost did. On the other hand, while 82% of the UT students reported that they learn from their mistakes in using the new language, 70% from UCB and 72.6% from UT felt the above statement was true about them.

Affective Strategies

The average mean for the affective strategies was the lowest for all the strategy categories. The mean calculated for this category was 2.54 which ranked sixth (last). As shown in Table 4.27, the least used strategy was “journal writing” (M: 1.36%) as an affective strategy which enables the learners to exert some control over their emotions. Of the total participants, 78.3% reported that they do

not keep a private diary or journal where they write their feelings about language learning.

The other affective strategies included in the least used strategies were "rewarding" and "taking their emotional temperature". The participants stated that they do not give themselves a tangible reward when they have done something well in their language learning (73.5%). They neither discuss their feelings about language learning with someone else nor pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect their language learning.

However; "encouraging themselves" (M: 3.48%), and "lowering their anxiety by guessing and relaxing" (M: 3.28%) were among the "neutral" strategies. They somewhat felt that they make encouraging statements to themselves so that they will continue to try hard and do their best in language learning (30%). They also reported that they actively encourage themselves to take wise risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even thought they might make some mistakes (34%).

Table 4.27: SILL Responses – Affective Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
65. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using the new language.								
	Total	4.8	10.8	45.2	29.5	9.6	3.28	0.95
66. I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.								
	Total	13.3	26.5	30.1	24.7	5.4	2.83	1.11

67. I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even thought I might make some mistakes.								
	Total	3.0	13.9	34.1	30.1	18.7	3.48	1.04
68. I give myself a tangible reward when I have done something well in my language learning.								
	Total	29.5	44.0	16.9	6.0	3.6	2.10	1.01
69. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect my language learning.								
	Total	22.3	34.9	25.3	12.7	4.8	2.43	1.11
70. I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning.								
	Total	78.3	11.4	7.2	2.4	0.6	1.36	0.77
71. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings concerning the language learning process.								
	Total	33.1	26.5	17.5	18.1	4.8	2.35	1.25

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

As Table 4.27 reveals, affective strategies (items 65-71) were the least used of the sixth strategy categories by all three groups, and UT participants showed generally higher negative responses in affective strategies than did the UCB and UCLA participants. For instance, 92.5% of the UT participants reported never or almost never keeping a private diary or journal, while 86.5% of the UCB and 87% of the UCLA participants reported that they never or almost never did.

Along the same line, when asking the participants about "trusting their attitudes and feelings concerning the language learning process", 65.7% of the UT students disagreed compared to 59.4% from UCB and 51.6% from UCLA students.

Social Strategies

According to Table 4.28, social strategies were highly used by the participants (M: 3.41) and ranked very high compared to the strategies in other categories. Specifically, social strategies involving "asking for clarification and correction" (M: 3.79%) and "developing cultural understanding" (M: 3.96%) were highly used by the participants. Most participants (66.2%) stated that if they do not understand, they ask the speaker to slow down, repeat, or clarify what was said. 71% of the participants also reported that they try to learn about the culture of the place where Persian is spoken. The only seldom used strategy from this category was "having a regular language learning partner" (M: 2.34%). Of the total participants, 60.8% stated that they do not have a regular language learning partner.

Table 4.28: SILL Responses – Social Strategies

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
72. If I do not understand, I ask the speaker to slow down, repeat, or clarify what was said.								
	Total	2.4	11.4	19.9	37.3	28.9	3.79	1.06
73. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.								
	Total	1.8	12.0	25.3	39.2	21.7	3.67	1.01
74. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.								
	Total	3.6	14.5	26.5	31.9	23.5	3.57	1.11
75. I work with other language learners to practice, review, or share information.								
	Total	12.0	23.5	35.5	22.3	6.6	2.88	1.09
76. I have a regular language learning partner.								
	Total	36.1	24.7	17.5	12.7	9.0	2.34	1.32
77. When I am talking with a native speaker, I try to let him or her know when I need help.								

	Total	2.4	16.3	27.7	33.7	19.9	3.52	1.06
78. In conversation with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested.								
	Total	4.2	14.5	41.6	28.3	11.4	3.28	0.99
79. I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken.								
	Total	1.2	6.0	21.7	38.0	33.1	3.96	0.95
80. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in the new language.								
	Total	2.4	10.8	25.9	42.8	18.1	3.63	0.98

Note:
[a]1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Generally not true of me, 3 = Somewhat true of me, 4 = Generally true of me, 5 = Always or almost always true of me.
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

In the case of social strategies (Items 72 to 80), students from UT showed more frequent use than students from UCB and UCLA. More UT participants (71.6%) than UCB participants (51.3%) and UCLA participants (69.3%) reported that they always or almost always ask the speaker to slow down, repeat or clarify what was said when they do not understand.

Also, of the UT participants, 58.2% of them always or almost always ask for correction; whereas less than half (45.9%) of the UCB participants and only 53.2% of the UCLA students ask for correction. While all the three groups stated that they try to learn about the culture of the new language, a larger number of participants from UT (77.6%) reported that they always or almost always did. This number was 70% for UCB participants and 64.5% for UCLA participants.

Summary of the Comparison for the SILL

In summary, the individual strategy use by all the participants of this study, based on their responses on the SILL, is shown in Tables 4.29 through 4.33. The mean scores of overall strategy use and standard deviations were calculated for UCB, UCLA and UT to compare the differences between the three groups. As shown in Table 4.29, strategy usage means were within the high range for UT students (M: 3.84) and medium range for UCB (M: 3.03) and UCLA (M: 3.09). Therefore, UT participants reported overall higher strategy use than UCB and UCLA when learning Persian.

Table 4.29: Descriptive statistics for the Variables and Mean Difference of the Strategy Use

Variables	Mean	SD	Min	Max
UCB	3.03	1.09	1.43	4.03
UCLA	3.09	1.09	1.37	4.18
UT/Austin	3.84	1.20	1.33	4.67

The differences in the use of the six categories of strategies between the three groups were also compared. As indicated in Table 4.30, a higher use of strategies by UT students for most categories of strategies except for cognitive and metacognitive strategies which showed a difference between the three groups. UT participants reported using memory, compensation, affective and social strategies; whereas, UCB participants used cognitive strategies and UCLA participants used metacognitive and social strategies more frequently.

Table 4.30: Differences in Mean and Standard Deviation of Overall Strategy Use among the Six Categories.

Variables	Group	Mean	SD
Memory Strategies	UCB	2.85	1.04
	UCLA	2.83	1.11
	UT/Austin	2.88	1.00
Cognitive Strategies	UCB	3.35	1.09
	UCLA	3.32	1.10
	UT/Austin	3.28	1.08
Compensation Strategies	UCB	3.40	1.09
	UCLA	3.49	1.06
	UT/Austin	3.54	0.97
Metacognitive Strategies	UCB	3.06	1.13
	UCLA	3.22	1.14
	UT/Austin	3.19	1.04
Affective Strategies	UCB	2.48	1.12
	UCLA	2.60	1.04
	UT/Austin	2.86	0.92
Social Strategies	UCB	3.28	1.11
	UCLA	3.44	1.06
	UT/Austin	3.44	1.01

The individual strategy use by all three groups, based on their responses on the SILL, is shown in Tables 4.31 through 4.33. Table 4.31 presents strategy categories which fell into the high use range. Items 1, 39, 45, 46, 63 and 79 from each category were among the most common strategies by all the participants and used more than other strategies: a memory strategy (Item 1), “I create associations between new material and what I already know” (M: 3.91); a cognitive strategy (Item 39), “I look for patterns in the new language” (M: 3.92); a compensation strategy (Item 45), “I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I cannot think of it in a conversation” (M: 4.01) and Item 46,“When I cannot think of

correct expression to say or write, “I find a different way to express the idea: for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea” (M: 4.01); a metacognitive strategy (Item 63), “I learn from my mistakes in using the new language” (M: 3.95); and a social strategy (Item 79). “I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken” (M: 3.96). It is noteworthy that no item from the “high strategy usage” falls within the category of affective strategy. This shows that participants of this study rarely use this type of strategy.

Table 4.31: Reported Strategy Use Categorized by High Usage (M: 3.5 or above)

Category	Item (Mean)
MEM	1 (3.91), 7 (3.52)
COG	17 (3.64), 18 (3.60), 20 (3.57), 31(3.77), 32 (3.81), 36 (3.81), 37 (3.56), 38 (3.54), 39 (3.92), 40 (3.65)
COM	41 (3.96), 42 (3.57), 44 (3.89), 45 (4.01), 46 (4.01)
MET	50 (3.52), 62 (3.64), 63 (3.95)
AFF	N/A
SOC	72 (3.79), 73 (3.67), 74 (3.57), 77 (3.52), 79 (3.96), 80 (3.63)

Note: MEM=Memory Strategies; COG=Cognitive Strategies; COM=Compensation Strategies; MET=Metacognitive Strategies; AFF= Affective Strategies; SOC= Social Strategies

More strategy uses fell within the medium range for the participants of this study (Table 4.32). More items from the cognitive and metacognitive strategies were in the medium range than other kinds of strategies. Some of the strategies which fall within the medium-high range were: a memory strategy (Item), “I go back to refresh my memory of things I earned much earlier” (M: 3.40), a cognitive strategy (Item 30), “I seek specific details in what I hear or read” (M: 3.44), a compensation strategy (Item 43) “In a conversation I anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far” (M: 3.39), a

metacognitive strategy (Item 51) “I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, I focus the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds” (M: 3.40), an affective strategy (Item 67) “I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in language learning such as guessing meanings…” (M: 3.48) and a social strategy (Item 78), “In conversation with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested” (M: 3.28).

Table 4.32: Reported Strategy Use Categorized by Medium Usage (M: 2.5-3.4)

Category	Item (Mean)
MEM	2 (3.00), 3 (2.96), 4 (3.16), 6 (2.71), 8 (3.19), 10 (3.32), 11 (2.84), 13 (3.26), 15 (3.40)
COG	16 (3.34), 19 (3.16), 21 (3.10), 22 (3.19), 23 (2.99), 24 (3.27), 25 (3.22), 26 (3.04), 27 (2.54), 28 (2.63), 29 (2.89), 30 (3.44), 33 (2.77), 34 (3.16), 35 (3.35)
COM	43 (3.39), 48 (2.80)
MET	49 (2.79), 51 (3.40), 52 (2.64), 53 (2.84), 54 (3.39), 55 (3.12), 56 (3.16), 58 (3.07), 59 (3.28), 60 (3.22), 61 (2.95), 64 (3.38)
AFF	65 (3.28), 66 (2.83), 67 (3.48)
SOC	75 (2.88), 78 (3.28)

Note: MEM=Memory Strategies; COG=Cognitive Strategies; COM=Compensation Strategies; MET=Metacognitive Strategies; AFF= Affective Strategies; SOC= Social Strategies

As seen in Table 4.33 below, there are fewer items within the low range than high and medium range of strategy use. This shows that participants of this study use a relatively medium percentage of strategies (M: 3.13). Items 12, 47, 57, 70 and 76 from each category were among the least common strategies by all the participants and used less than other strategies: a memory strategy (Item 12), “I use flash cards with the new word on one side and the definition on the other” (M: 1.51); a compensation strategy (Item: 47), “I make up new words if I do not know

the right ones" (M: 2.27); a metacognitive strategy (Item:57), "I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day and each week" (M: 2.31); an affective strategy (Item 70), "I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning" (M: 1.36); and a social strategy (Item 76), "I have a regular language learning partner" (M: 2.34). Interestingly, no item from the category of cognitive strategy and only one item from the categories of compensation and social strategies each fall within the "low strategy usage".

Table 4.33: Reported Strategy Use Categorized by Low Usage (M: 2.4 or below)

Category	Item (Mean)
MEM	5 (2.20), 9 (1.79), 12 (1.51), 14 (2.02)
COG	N/A
COM	47 (2.27)
MET	57 (2.31)
AFF	68 (2.10), 69 (2.47), 70 (1.36), 71 (2.35)
SOC	76 (2.34)

Note: MEM=Memory Strategies; COG=Cognitive Strategies; COM=Compensation Strategies; MET=Metacognitive Strategies; AFF= Affective Strategies; SOC= Social Strategies

DISCUSSION

Using the research questions as a framework, the following section discusses and interprets findings of the data analyses. Each section offers interpretations of findings based upon the descriptive analysis of the data (IBQ, BALLI & SILL). The findings of the current study are then compared with those found in previous studies, mainly with studies related to American students leaning other foreign languages (LCTL & CTL).

Research Question 1

What beliefs about language learning do US Persian language learners report holding? How do the American university students' beliefs about language learning compare to those of other language learners?

Based on the descriptive analyses of the BALLI developed by Horwitz (1987), this study identified American students' beliefs about learning the Persian language. Using Horwitz's five categories for the BALLI, this study found that only small differences exist among these categories. The highest mean belonged to the "motivation and expectations" category, while the lowest mean belonged to the "difficulty of language learning".

In terms of frequency of beliefs about language learning, Persian language students hold strong beliefs about motivation and expectations of learning Persian. They also strongly expressed a desire to have Persian-speaking friends and to learn to speak Persian. In spite of these beliefs about language learning, many of these students felt self-conscious and timid speaking Persian. Thus, these students may not be willing to practice Persian with others. These findings suggest that even though it is assumed that students' beliefs are related to their use of language learning strategies (Park, 1995; Yang, 1992; Wenden, 1987a & 1986), this relationship may depend on the types of beliefs, language learning strategies, and individual characteristics of learners.

With respect to difficulty of language learning, most participants considered Persian as a language of medium difficulty which can be learned and spoken fluently between three to five years. Participants mostly believed that they

would ultimately learn to speak Persian very well. The Persian learners tended to believe that learning Persian takes the same time as the time the American believed was required to learn French in Kern's (1995) study. Perhaps, this similarity is related to American students' objectives and expectations for learning a foreign language. Interestingly, a similar result was also shown in Oh's (1996) study where Japanese learners tended to believe that Japanese was a relatively difficult language and it takes three to five years to learn the language. While many French learners (in Kern's, 1995) and Japanese learners (in Oh's, 1996) agreed that it is easier to speak than understand a foreign language, Persian learners in this study disagreed with this belief.

Concerning foreign language aptitude, most of the participants agreed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language, and also agreed with the statement that "it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one". The results from Kern (1995) and Oh (1996) also supported this belief. Also, students from all the above studies shared the same belief that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

On the topic of the nature of language learning, a good number of participants agreed that it is necessary to know the foreign language culture in order to speak well. The same result was shown by Japanese language learners (Oh, 1996) whose emphasis was on learning the target culture. However, this belief was not supported by French language learners (Kern, 1996) and other foreign language learners, such as German and Spanish (Horwitz, 1988). This difference of opinions might be due to the nature of less commonly taught

languages such as Persian and Japanese rather than commonly taught languages such as French, German and Spanish. Persian language learners also believed that it is best to learn a foreign language in the foreign country. This was well supported by both foreign language learners in Kern's and Oh's study as well as by foreign language learners in Horwitz's (1988) study. Many also agreed that learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.

Regarding "learning and communication strategies", most of the participants felt that it is important to repeat and practice when speaking Persian. This belief was previously supported by all the other foreign language learners (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Oh, 1996; Kuntz, 1996). Exactly half of the participants disagreed with the notion that they shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until they could say it correctly and they also said that it was O.K. to guess if they don't know a word in the Persian language. These numbers were much higher according to previous studies (Yang 1992; Park, 1995; Oh, 1996; Kunt, 1997; Hong 2006). This could be due to the possibility that native speakers, both instructors as well as students, convey common myths to the non-native learners both directly and indirectly.

Finally, concerning "motivation and expectations", the great majority of the participants in each group expressed the wish to learn Persian well in order to get to know native speakers better and not for bettering their opportunity for getting a good job. They reported that they expected ultimately to learn Persian very well. In previous studies (Horwitz, 1987; Yang, 1992; Park, 1995; Truitt, 1996; Kunt, 1997; Hong, 2006), a high percentage of participants who were

comprised of students learning English as a second /foreign language, expressed the belief that if they learn English very well, they would have better job opportunities. Studies on American students learning foreign languages (Kern, 1995; Oh, 1996; Kuntz, 1996), however found that, a high percentage either disagreed with or were neutral towards this belief.

It seems that at least as far as it is true of this study, students have integrative motivation in expressing a wish for "learning the language well, getting to know the native speakers, making friends and learning the culture". On the other hand the ESL/EFL students in previous studies, who expressed a wish to better their chance of getting a better job through their learning of the English language, clearly hold instrumental motivation. This point could be generalized to cover all the LCTLs versus the CTLs, that learners of LCTL embark on the learning expedition due to integrative motivations but this is not so in the case of CTLs. The evidence from studies on American students learning foreign languages (Kern, 1995; Oh, 1996; Kuntz, 1996) cited above also supports this. At this point it is warranted to point out that since September 11th 2001, there has been such a great shift in looking at and classifying so many of LCTL as desirable, necessary, crucial, and strategic (entailing better jobs and salaries) that there could well be a change in the motivation of current and future students starting on their journey from integrative to instrumental. It is also possible that these students are indicating that they have personal but nor strategic reasons for learning Persian.

Research Question 2

Which beliefs about language learning are most common or least common among the participants in this study?

Based on the participants' responses on the BALLI, some of the individual items fall within the high mean range. These items show the most common language learning beliefs in each category among the participants of this study. Regarding "difficulty of language learning", items 3 and 6 were among the most common beliefs by all participants. These were: "Some languages are easier to learn than others" and "I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well". Concerning "foreign language aptitude", items 1, 10 & 34 scored high means. These were: "It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language", "It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one" and "Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language". On the topic of "nature of the language learning", items 8, 11 & 25 were reported as most common beliefs which were "It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language", "It is better to learn a foreign language in a foreign country" and "learning a foreign language is different from learning other schools subjects". Regarding "learning and communication strategies", items 7, 13 & 17 were highly scored. These include "It is important to speak the Persian language with an excellent accent"; "It is o.k. to guess if you don't know a word in the Persian language" and "It is important to repeat and practice a lot".

Furthermore, based on the participants' responses on the BALLI, some of the individual items fall within the low mean range. These items show the least common language learning beliefs in each category among the participants of this study. Regarding "difficulty of language learning", item 24 was among the least common beliefs by all participants. This was: "It is easier to speak than understand the Persian language". Concerning "foreign language aptitude", items 22 and 29 scored low means. These were: "Women are better than men at learning foreign languages" and "People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages". On the topic of "nature of the language learning", item 26 was reported as the most common belief which was "Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English. Regarding "learning and communication strategies", item 9 was scored low. This includes "You shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until you can say it correctly". Interestingly, no item from the category of "motivation and expectations" falls within the "low belief range". This shows that participants of this study have high levels of motivation and expectations for learning the Persian language.

Comparing the three groups in this category, only small differences among the three groups in the type of beliefs they hold are shown. Although the means for beliefs about language learning were within the medium range for all three groups, a slightly higher percentage of beliefs by UT (M: 3.43) students than by UCLA (M: 3.31) and UCB (M: 3.27) students are shown for most categories. UT

participants reported holding a slightly higher percentage of beliefs in all five categories except in “Foreign Language Aptitude” where UCLA got the highest mean.

A potential basis for holding stronger beliefs by UT students relative to the two other locations may be in the high percentage of confirmatory responses to the question on the IBQ: “Are you second generation Iranian-American?” (UCB: 37.8%, UCLA: 41.9% and UT: 59.7%). As these figures illustrate, the percentile disparity between UCB and UCLA is low (about 4%), yet exhibits an increase in favor of UCLA, whereas the percentile difference between the two aforementioned settings and UT is very high (about %20). This constancy is mirrored in the holding of beliefs about language learning where it demonstrates a steady rising slope for UCB, UCLA and UT (respectively: M: 3.27, 3.31 and 3.43), which could very well be indicative of existence of a connection linking heritage background to beliefs about language learning.

Research Question 3

What language learning strategies do US Persian language learners report using? How do the American university students’ language learning strategies compare to those of other language learners?

Based on the descriptive analyses of the SILL developed by Oxford (1990), this study identified American students’ Persian language learning strategies. In general, the students of Persian reported using a variety of different

strategies. Almost none of the Oxford's subgroups of strategies received a low-use rating (2.4 or below). Furthermore, the overall frequency average; i.e., the grand mean of all 80 items was 3.13, which indicates that this sample used language learning strategies at a moderate level. This study compares the frequency of strategy use between the present sample and previous samples from other studies which have used the SILL. The samples included for this comparison were those who learned L2 in foreign language situations. Samples which learned L2 in L2 environments (e.g., ESL) were excluded since research studies have shown that strategy use is generally higher for the latter groups. In other words, it is highly likely that if learners are surrounded by the target language all day, their need for using strategies will be higher than those who have limited exposure to L2.

The majority of foreign language students from previous studies (Oxford, 1986; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Green, 1991; Douglas, 1992; Nakayama, 1995) used learning strategies at moderate level (2.5 to 3.4). None of the Puerto Rican students (Green, 1991) was consistently low frequency strategy users. This might be due to the fact that these students were studying English in a so-called mixed ESL-EFL environment. Similarly, participants from the current research and Nakayama's (1995) study used strategies at a higher level than other studies. The difference might have resulted from the fact that most of the participants of the present research had previously studied at least one foreign language, mostly Indo-European languages such as Spanish, German and French, in high school or college before attempting to learn Persian. Therefore, they might have already

developed certain strategies with which they felt comfortable or which they found worked for them. Or it is possible that Persian as an Indo-European language, demanded the use of the same learning strategies.

In terms of the individual items of the SILL, most items belonged to the mean ranges between 2.5 and 3.4, indicating that Persian language learners in this study "sometimes" used most of the strategies inventoried by the SILL to learn Persian more effectively. Interestingly, Yang (1992), Park (1995), Nakayama (1995) and Hong (2006) report that university students in their studies also "sometimes" used most of the strategies in the SILL. Compared to the above findings, many language learning strategies in the SILL used by the foreign language learners in the U.S. reported by Nyikos and Oxford (1993) belonged to the categories of "never or almost never used" and "generally not used" as well as "usually used" and "sometimes used". In other words, foreign language learners in the U.S. used language learning strategies more broadly than EFL university students in Taiwan and Korea. However, findings of the current study does not support the latter statement. This might be due to either the nature of the Persian language as a less commonly taught language or the nature of the Persian instruction in the United States.

Research Question 4

Which language learning strategies are most common or least common among the participants in this study?

American students employed a variety of language leaning strategies. In the following section, the use of strategies by the participants is provided in descending order from most to least used and gives a possible rationale for the results. By means of descriptive analyses of the SILL, this study found that 26 items were among the most common strategies by all participants and were used more than other strategies; whereas, 11 items were among the least common strategies by all participants and were used less than other strategies. The highest mean belonged to items #45 and #46. These were “I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I cannot think of it in a conversation” and “I find a different way to express the idea”, respectively. The lowest mean belonged to item #70 which was “I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning”.

In general, compensation strategies emerged as the most popular strategies in the current study as well as previous studies (Phillips, 1991; Yang, 1992; Mullins, 1992; Nakayama, 1995; Hong, 2006). On the other hand, memory and affective strategies were the least frequently used, which is, in fact similar to world-wide findings with a variety of samples using various versions of the SILL (Oxford, 1992). Learners seem to use a limited set of memory strategies on a regular basis rather than using a variety of memory tricks occasionally.

Another point to be noticed is that strategy use by the present sample was quite similar to that of the study by Nakayama (1995). First, the overall frequency

of strategy use in both studies was relatively high compared with the other studies. Secondly, frequencies of use by categories were almost alike except for one slight difference in order; in both cases, compensation and social strategies were used the most frequently, whereas memory and affective strategies were employed the least frequently. The preference for these types of strategies may indicate that participants tended to rely heavily on compensation and social strategies to process information due to their lack of overall language competence and knowledge. In addition, the high use of compensation and social strategies may reflect the methods of teaching and ways of learning Persian in the United States both of which encourage students to use translation, gestures, clues, and synonyms in order to process information in the language learning classes. The high use of social strategies by the participants of the current study was also supported previously by other studies (Douglas, 1992; Nakayama, 1995; Wharton, 2000; Hong, 2006).

On the other hand, the low mean score for memory strategies supports the findings by Phillips (1991) in which Asian ESL students used memory strategies the least frequently among the six categories of learning strategies in the SILL (ESL/EFL Student Version). In addition, it is interesting that American students in this study used metacognitive strategies similar to students in Oxford et al (1990) and Phillips's (1991) studies. Regardless of the importance of practice strategies, included in the category of the cognitive strategies, to learn an L2,

participants of this study were reluctant to use independent and interactive practice strategies. Regarding this, several possible explanations can be offered: (1) Students may not have enough opportunities to practice Persian outside the classroom; (2) These students may avoid practice strategies because practice strategies usually accompany affective demands such as lowering anxiety; (3) Instructional practice and classroom objectives may suppress these students' use of practice strategies, and (4) These students may not be aware of enough practice strategies.

Finally, as for affective strategies for regulating emotions, learners of foreign languages may not find themselves in situations requiring spontaneous responses in the L2 or in which they may experience culture shock; thus, affective strategies are, in general, underused. Also, based on familiarity with teaching Persian, this author can attest that another possible reason behind this might be due to the fact that these students may not be aware of the existence of affective strategies. This indicates that there is a need for instructing students in strategy training at the beginning of the course.

Comparing the three groups in this category, strategy usage means were within the high range for UT students (M: 3.84) and medium range for UCB (M: 3.03) and UCLA (M: 3.09). Therefore, UT participants reported overall higher strategy use than UCB and UCLA when learning Persian. The comparison in the use of the six categories of strategies between the three groups also showed a

higher use of strategies by UT students for most categories of strategies except for cognitive and metacognitive strategies. This showed a significant difference between the three groups. UT participants reported using memory, compensation, affective and social strategies; whereas, UCB participants used cognitive strategies and UCLA participants used metacognitive and social strategies more frequently.

A potential basis for the elevated usage of language learning strategies by UT students relative to the two other settings may possibly be traced in the high percentage of affirmative responses to the query on the IBQ: “Are you second generation Iranian-American?” (UCB: 37.8%, UCLA: 41.9% and UT: 59.7%). As these figures illustrate, the percentile disparity between UCB and UCLA is low (about 4%), but exhibits an increase in favor of UCLA, whereas the percentile difference between the two aforementioned institutes and UT is very high (about %20). This consistency is paralleled in the application of strategies where strategy use demonstrates a steady intensifying gradient for UCB, UCLA and UT (respectively: M: 3.03, 3.09 and 3.84), which could very well be indicative of existence of a connection tying heritage background to the use of learning strategies.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study has identified beliefs and language learning strategy use of university students learning Persian at three universities in the United States. While previous research investigated language learning strategy use and beliefs about language learning, this study examines a specific group of students who are learning Persian, a strategic, less commonly taught language. This chapter presents conclusions, implications for research and pedagogy, limitations and recommendations for future research.

CONCLUSIONS

The current study is the first research attempt to investigate US Persian university students' beliefs about language learning and their use of language learning strategies. Particularly, students learning a less commonly taught language, such as Persian, may have different language beliefs and use different language learning strategies than those students learning a commonly taught language. This study has also presented empirical evidence reflecting learners' beliefs about language leaning and their self-reported use of learning strategies.

1. The current study indicated that American university students reported holding various beliefs about language learning inventoried by the BALLI. That is, these students responded to all the items in the BALLI from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The American university students in this study were highly motivated for leaning Persian integratively. For instance, participants believed that learning the Persian language is very important because they would get to know the Persian native speakers as well as their culture better. This shows that students were motivated to learn Persian more for social interaction rather than academic purposes or better job opportunities. This study found that not only learning context influenced the beliefs of the students but also societal trends in language learning regarding the advantages of Persian fluency was influential too. Also, in spite of the dominant grammar-translation method used in teaching Persian in the United States, many of these students rejected the importance of teaching mainly translation and grammar in learning Persian.

In addition, the participants strongly expressed a desire to learn to speak Persian well and make Persian speaking friends. These participants also acknowledged the importance of cultural knowledge, learning environment, pronunciation, and guessing in speaking Persian. Furthermore, the participants in this study held both similar and different beliefs concerning language learning from those of American foreign language learners (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Oh, 1996), ESL university

students (Horwitz, 1987; Siebert, 2003) and EFL university students (Yang, 1992; Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995; Nakayama, 1995; Kunt, 1997; Kim-Yoon, 2000; Hong 2006). Some of contrasting findings across the studies with learners in various learning and cultural context may support the argument that learners' beliefs are influenced by the different language learning contexts (ESL/EFL/FL or LCTL/CTL), educational or cultural backgrounds.

2. This study investigated the most and least common beliefs held by American university students of Persian. By means of descriptive analyses of the BALLI, this study found that 14 items were among the most common beliefs held by all participants and were held more than other beliefs; whereas, 5 items were among the least common beliefs held by all participants and were held less than the other beliefs. The highest mean belonged to items #1 and #17. These were "It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language" and "It is important to repeat and practice a lot" respectively. The lowest mean belonged to item #9 which was "You shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until you can say it correctly".

3. American university students, learning Persian as a foreign language in the United States, employed a variety of language learning strategies inventoried by the SILL (FL Student Version) when learning Persian and

reported similarities and differences in strategy use. Among the strategies, the American university students in this study used more compensation and social strategies than metacognitive, memory and affective strategies. In addition, a comparison of findings of previous studies revealed several similarities as well as some differences in the responses to the SILL items between participants of the current study and those of ESL learners (Chang, 1990; Phillips, 1991; Osanai, 2000), EFL learners (Yang, 1992; Park, 1995; Wang, 1996; Nakayama, 1995; Chou 2002, Chang, 2003; Hong 2006) and FL learners (Oxford & Ehrman 1995; Wharton, 2000).

4. This study investigated the most and least common language learning strategies used by American university students of Persian. By means of descriptive analyses of the SILL, this study found that 26 items were among the most common strategies used by all participants and were used more than other strategies; whereas, 11 items were among the least common strategies used by all participants and were used less than other strategies. The highest mean belonged to items #45 and #46. These were "I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I cannot think of it in a conversation" and "I find a different way to express the idea" respectively. The lowest mean belonged to item #70 which was "I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning".

5. A comparison between the three settings indicated that the mean for learning beliefs was within a slightly higher range for UT students than for UCLA and UCB students. However, this mean was within a noticeably higher range for strategy use for UT students than for UCB and UCLA students. Therefore, UT participants reported overall higher strategy use than UCB and UCLA when learning Persian. This study showed a higher use of strategies by UT students for most categories of strategies except for cognitive and metacognitive strategies which showed a significant difference between the three groups. UT participants reported using memory, compensation, affective and social strategies; whereas, UCB participants used cognitive strategies and UCLA participants used metacognitive and social strategies more frequently.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have both theoretical and pedagogical implications for research on second or foreign language teaching and learning and practice of Persian instruction in the United States. This study found variety in the strategy use and beliefs about language learning of American university students.

Theoretically, this study explored language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning of American university students learning a strategic, less commonly taught language in the United States. It has been argued that learners' prescriptive beliefs about how to best learn a second language represent their awareness of language learning and have the potential for developing self-

regulation. Such beliefs indicate that learners have begun to reflect on what they are doing in line with their goals, and this awareness may ultimately lead to self-regulation.

In addition, studies in language learning strategies create profiles of good language learners as students who are actively engaged in language learning and are able to problem solve regarding their own learning. One consistent finding is that all language learners report using some type of strategies in their language learning. Differences across learners are in the relative effectiveness of strategy application; that is, the appropriate implementation of the right strategies at the right times.

Pedagogically, the findings of this study suggest that strategy training conducted in a regular language classroom can help less successful students become successful in learning Persian, which will help them become more effective and autonomous Persian learners outside the classroom. Nevertheless, the findings of this study add more ideas about exploring the beliefs, strategy use and strategy training for students of less commonly taught languages:

1. Participants of this study show high integrative motivation and self-perceptions of foreign language aptitude. They believe that they will learn to speak Persian very well and they strongly believe that by learning Persian they can get to know Persian native speakers and their culture better. Therefore, instructors can help students by discussing the value of knowing Persian and the importance of socio-cultural elements in learning

the Persian language. Instructors should also develop a curriculum that reflects the needs of these culture-oriented students.

2. Persian language learners in this study believe that “learning a foreign language is not mostly the matter of translating from English”. Also, they believe that learning Persian is not just learning the grammar rules. Therefore, instead of using solely Grammar-Translation method, Persian instructors should use a communicative language teaching method which is more learner-centered, more practice-oriented and emphasizes social interaction for the development of students’ proficiency more than other methods. This way, instructors can help students by providing frequent positive feedback, creating a non-threatening environment in which students feel comfortable speaking Persian and most of all by making learning Persian fun.

3. The participants of this study are engaged in language learning strategies less frequently. This might hypothetically be due to such universal factors as follows:

    A. The nature of the language: Persian, being a less commonly-taught language may impact the learners differently than say a commonly taught language. The unfamiliar characteristics of the language (visually unfamiliar writing system, right to left writing, SOV

word order, unwritten vowels)[3]. This also includes the cultural aspects of the language too (what is expected from the students)

B. The nature of the language instruction: It is highly probable that the instructors in the less-commonly taught languages field, including Persian language, do not engage in instructing the students in “strategic training”, “awareness raising” and/or similar topics. It is also probable that the instructors themselves may not have been trained in or even aware of the language learning strategies. Also, the issue of teaching material comes up here. At the time of this study the majority of the surveyed instructional material in Persian language instruction, did not address the issues of language learning strategies and beliefs[4]. It is worth mentioning that most teaching material in the Persian language in use at the time of survey, were designed by mostly instructors whose specialty is in fields other than language teaching. And even though there are exceptions[5], the majority does not keep up with the latest in the field of Foreign Language Education.

C. The nature of the student: The above two points notwithstanding, the only conclusion to arrive at is that the students engaging in the

[3] For a complete listing of these characteristics, see Chapter 1.
[4] Hillmann (See Appendix G for a complete list) to some extent addresses some of these.
[5] Ibid

learning of the Persian language are not highly effective language learners.

Therefore, since effectiveness in both language teaching and learning is the objective, educators need to know who their students are and how they approach language learning. Instructors should also be more involved in introducing the relevant language learning strategies to the Persian language students. Finding out about students' language beliefs and their choice of language learning strategies will offer new insights as to what they expect and how they go about learning Persian in the classroom. In order to achieve this goal, the instructors need to be familiar in the field of foreign language education and its teaching methodologies; specifically less commonly taught languages.

4. Strategy training should be combined with belief training to increase training effects. In order to maximize training effects in large groups, teachers should identify more effective learning strategies for specific groups of students and focus on teaching these strategies to the students. In addition, if students are found to hold unrealistic beliefs about learning Persian, instructors may attempt to modify the preconceived notions that may influence their choice of language learning strategies. For instance, if the instructors find that the students believe that Persian must be difficult

to learn, they might influence these beliefs by providing students with relevant facts such as the origin of the Persian language (Indo-European), the sharing of many loan words by both languages, the lack of case, marking, gender, neutral and dual (as opposed to French, German, Arabic) in Persian. Therefore, discussing realistic expectations regarding language learning task may also help and engage students in more effective learning.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study suggest that the following areas need to be explored in the future:

1. The results of this study are limited to a sample population of volunteer American university students who were studying Persian at three state universities in the United States. Whether the same findings would be found at other universities remains unknown. Therefore, a replication of this study with different population, if possible a larger sample to increase the power of the statistical tests, is suggested.

2. In this study, students' use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning were identified through two self-report questionnaires of the SILL and the BALLI. Thus, to control for self-report

biases in these measures, the identification of these strategies and beliefs needs to be verified using other types of data collection, such as interviews and observations.

3. The language learning strategies which work for particular students for particular tasks need to be identified. In addition, which domain of language (vocabulary, grammar) can be affected through language learning strategies needs to be determined.

4. Persian learners' use of language learning strategies and their beliefs about language learning, focusing their relationship with the background variables (such as sex, age, language proficiency, heritage/non-heritage) need to be investigated.

5. Also, the Persian language students in this study said they had high motivations and expectations to learn Persian, get to know Persian native speakers and the Persian culture. Therefore, a study closely examining motivations of Persian language students is recommended.

6. Finally, a replication of this study with a group of language learners taking other less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic, Turkish, etc, as well as a comparison between learners of commonly taught languages and of less commonly taught languages would be interesting in order to see if

the language learning beliefs and strategies found in this study are culture-specific to those students learning Persian.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ)

1. Date _____

2. Age _____

3. Sex _____

4. Mother Tongue _____

5. Are you second generation Iranian-American?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

6. If not, what do you consider yourself? _____

7. Language(s) you speak at home _____

8. Language(s) you have been exposed to at home _____

9. Language(s) you have studied? How long? _____

10. How do you evaluate your proficiency in the above language(s)? (Write down the name of each language next to the appropriate choice)

- ❑ Excellent
- ❑ Good
- ❑ Fair
- ❑ Poor

11. Other languages you have been exposed to? How? _____

12. How long have you been studying Persian? _____

13. What made you interested in learning Persian? (Mark all that apply)

- ❑ Being second generation Iranian American
- ❑ Needing Persian for academic purposes
- ❑ Having ties to Iranians (friends, spouse, etc.)

- ❑ Needing Persian for performing job related duties
- ❑ Persian will benefit you in the job you will eventually have
- ❑ Required to take a language for graduation
- ❑ Need it for travel
- ❑ Other (explain) _____

14. How important is it for you to become proficient in Persian?

- ❑ Very important
- ❑ Somewhat important
- ❑ Not important

15. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to other students in your class?

- ❑ Excellent
- ❑ Good
- ❑ Fair
- ❑ Poor

16. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to native speakers of Persian?

- ❑ Excellent
- ❑ Good
- ❑ Fair
- ❑ Poor

17. By the end of this course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

- ❑ Excellent
- ❑ Good
- ❑ Fair
- ❑ Poor

18. After two years of instruction what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

- ❑ Excellent
- ❑ Good
- ❑ Fair
- ❑ Poor

19. Has language been your favorite subject? _____

APPENDIX B

Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

Below are some statements about learning foreign languages. Read each statement and then decide if you (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, (5) strongly agree. There is no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your opinions. Questions 4 & 14 are slightly different and you should mark them as indicated.

REMEMBER:

1. **Strongly disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Neither agree nor disagree**
4. **Agree**
5. **Strongly agree**

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.

2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.

3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.

4. The Persian language is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) a language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, 5) a very easy language.

5. People from my culture are good at learning foreign languages.

6. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well.

7. It is important to speak the Persian language with an excellent accent.

8. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.

9. You shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until you can say it correctly.

10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.

11. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.

12. If I heard someone speaking the Persian language, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.

13. It's o.k. to guess if you don't know a word in the Persian language.

14. If someone spent one hour a day learning the Persian language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent?
1) less than a year, 2) 1-2 years, 3)3-5 years, 4) 5-10 years, 5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.

15. I have foreign language aptitude.

16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.

17. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.

18. I feel self-conscious speaking the Persian language in front of other people.

19. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.

20. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.

21. It is important to practice in the language laboratory.

22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

23. If I get to speak the Persian language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.

24. It is easier to speak than understand the Persian language.

25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.

26. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.

27. If I learn to speak the Persian language very well, it will help me get a good job.

28. It is easier to read and write the Persian language than to speak and understand it.

29. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.

30. People from my culture think that it is important to speak a foreign language.

31. I would like to learn the Persian language so that I can get to know its speakers better.

32. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.

33. People from my culture are good at learning foreign languages.

34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

APPENDIX C

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
Version 5.1 (c) R. Oxford. 1989

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is designed to gather information about how you, as a student of a foreign or second language, go about learning that language. On the following pages, you will find statements related to learning a new language. Please read each statement and mark the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells how true the statement is in terms of what you actually do when you are learning the new language.

1. **Never or almost never true of me**
2. **Generally not true of me**
3. **Somewhat true of me**
4. **Generally true of me**
5. **Always or almost always true of me**

Part A

When learning a new word …

1. I create associations between new material and what I already know.

2. I put the new word in a sentence so I can remember it.

3. I place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way (for example, words related to clothing, or feminine nouns).

4. I associate the sound of the new word with the sound of a familiar word.

5. I use rhyming to remember it.

6. I remember the word by making a clear mental image of it or by drawing a picture.

7. I visualize the spelling of the new word in my mind.

8. I use a combination of sounds and images to remember the new word.

9. I list all the other words I know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show relationships.

10. I remember where the new word is located on the page, or where I first saw or heard it.

11. I use flash cards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other.

12. I physically act out the new word.

When learning new material ...

13. I review often.

14. I schedule my reviewing so that the review sessions are initially close together in time and gradually become more widely spread apart.

15. I go back to refresh my memory of things I learned much earlier.

Part B

16. I say or write new expressions repeatedly to practice them.

17. I imitate the way native speakers talk.

18. I read a story or a dialogue several times until I can understand it.

19. I revise what I write in the new language to improve my writing.

20. I practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language.

21. I use idioms or other routines in the new language.

22. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.

23. I initiate conversations in the new language.

24. I watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.

25. I try to think in the new language.

26. I attend and participate in out-of-class events where the new language is spoken.

27. I read for pleasure in the new language.

28. I write personal notes, messages, letters, or reports in the new language.

29. I skim the reading passage first to get the main idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.

30. I seek specific details in what I hear or read.

31. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.

32. I take notes in class in the new language.

33. I make summaries of new language material.

34. I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.

35. I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which I understand.

36. I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.

37. I try to understand what I have heard or read without translating it word-for-word into my own language.

38. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.

39. I look for patterns in the new language.

40. 1 develop my own understanding of how the language works, even if sometimes I have to revise my understanding based on new information.

Part C

41. When I do not understand all the words I read or hear, I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the context or situation.

42. I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.

43. In a conversation I anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.

44. If I am speaking and cannot think of the right expression, I use gestures or switch back to my own language momentarily.

45. I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I cannot think of it in a conversation.

46. When I cannot think of the correct expression to say or write, I find a different way to express the idea: for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea.

47. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.

48. I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words.

Part D

49. I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.

50. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and put unrelated topics out of my mind.

51. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example. I focus the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds.

52. I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.

53. I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.

54. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quiet. comfortable place to review.

55. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.

56. I plan my goals for language learning, for instance, how proficient I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.

57. I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.

58. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as giving a talk in the new language) by considering the nature of the task, what I have to know, and my current language skills.

59. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, in a listening task I might need to listen for the general idea or for specific facts.

60. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practice the new language.

61. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.

62. I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons for them.

63. I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.

64. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.

Part E

65. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using the new language.

66. I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.

67. I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even though I might make some mistakes.

68. I give myself a tangible reward when I have done something well in my language learning.

69. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect my language learning.

70. I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning.

71. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings concerning the language learning process.

Part F

72. If I do not understand, I ask the speaker to slow down, repeat, or clarify what was said.

73. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.

74. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.

75. I work with other language learners to practice, review, or share information.

76. I have a regular language learning partner.

77. When I am talking with a native speaker, I try to let him or her know when I need help.

78. In conversation with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested.

79. I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken.

80. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in the new language.

APPENDIX D

Frequency of Responses (in%), Means and Standard Deviations for the IBQ Items (Whole Group)

2. Age

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Total Group	22.1	6.0	18	59

3. Sex

(Unit: %)

	M	F
Total Group	51.8	48.2

4. Mother Tongue

(Unit: %)

	PERSIAN (=Farsi)	Persian-English	English	Others
Total Group	42.8	2.4	45.8	9.0

5. Are you second generation Iranian-American?

(Unit: %)

	YES	No
Total Group	48.2	51.8

12. Studying Year

(Unit: Month(s))

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
Total Group	18.1	36.3	0	228

14. How important is it for you to become proficient in Persian?

(Unit: %)

	NOT IMPORTANT	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Missing
Total Group	3.0	36.7	59.0	1.2

15. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to other students in your class?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	8.4	28.3	47.6	14.5	1.2

16. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to native speakers of Persian?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	38.0	36.7	22.3	1.2	1.2

17. By the end of this course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	3.0	28.9	51.8	15.1	1.2

18. After two years of instruction what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
Total Group	0.0	9.6	44.6	44.0	1.2

19. Has language been your favorite subject?

(Unit: %)

	YES	No	Others	Missing
Total Group	43.4	39.2	16.3	1.2

APPENDIX E

Frequency of Responses (in%), Means and Standard Deviations for the IBQ Items (Three Groups)

2. Age

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
UC Berkeley	21.8	5.7	18	50
UC LA	23.2	6.6	18	53
UT Austin	21.3	5.6	17	59

3. Sex

(Unit: %)

	M	F
UC Berkeley	59.5	40.5
UC LA	43.5	56.5
UT Austin	46.3	53.7

4. Mother Tongue

(Unit: %)

	PERSIAN (=Farsi)	Persian-English	English	Others
UC Berkeley	56.8	5.4	35.1	2.7
UC LA	48.4	1.6	37.1	12.9
UT Austin	29.9	1.5	59.7	9.0

5. Are you second generation Iranian-American?

(Unit: %)

	YES	No
UC Berkeley	37.8	62.2
UC LA	41.9	58.1
UT Austin	59.7	40.3

12. Studying Year

(Unit: Month(s))

	M	*SD*	Min	Max
UC Berkeley	17.4	34.6	0	206
UC LA	21.0	42.8	0	228
UT Austin	13.8	28.9	0	182

14. How important is it for you to become proficient in Persian?

(Unit: %)

	NOT IMPORTANT	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Missing
UC Berkeley	2.7	35.1	59.5	2.7
UC LA	1.6	35.5	62.9	0.0
UT Austin	4.5	38.8	55.2	1.5

15. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to other students in your class?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
UC Berkeley	8.1	24.3	48.6	16.2	2.7
UC LA	4.8	30.6	54.8	9.7	0.0
UT Austin	11.9	28.4	40.3	17.9	1.5

16. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in Persian to native speakers of Persian?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
UC Berkeley	32.4	37.8	21.6	5.4	2.7
UC LA	33.9	37.1	29.0	0.0	0.0
UT Austin	44.8	35.8	16.4	0.0	3.0

17. By the end of this course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing
UC Berkeley	10.8	24.3	43.2	18.9	2.7
UC LA	0.0	22.6	59.7	17.7	0.0
UT Austin	1.5	37.3	49.3	10.4	1.5

18. After two years of instruction what do you expect your proficiency level to be?

(Unit: %)

	POOR	FAIR	Good	Excellent	Missing

UC Berkeley	0.0	16.2	51.4	29.7	0.0
UC LA	0.0	4.8	41.9	53.2	0.0
UT Austin	0.0	10.4	43.3	43.3	3.0

19. Has language been your favorite subject?

(Unit: %)

	YES	**No**	**Others**	Missing
UC Berkeley	43.2	37.8	18.9	0.0
UC LA	41.9	43.5	14.5	0.0
UT Austin	44.8	37.3	16.4	1.5

APPENDIX F

Frequency of Responses (in%), Means and Standard Deviations for the BALLI Items

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.								
	Total	[b]1.8	3.6	3.6	19.9	71.1	4.55	0.87
	UC Berkeley	5.4	2.7	2.7	24.3	64.9	4.41	1.07
	UC LA	1.6	1.6	6.5	25.8	64.5	4.50	0.83
	UT Austin	0.0	6.0	1.5	11.9	80.6	4.67	0.79
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.								
	Total	6.6	11.4	28.3	38.6	15.1	3.44	1.09
	UC Berkeley	8.1	5.4	37.8	32.4	16.2	3.43	1.09
	UC LA	6.5	11.3	27.4	37.1	17.7	3.48	1.11
	UT Austin	6.0	14.9	23.9	43.3	11.9	3.40	1.07
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.								
	Total	2.4	3.6	5.4	48.2	40.4	4.20	0.88
	UC Berkeley	0.0	2.7	5.4	51.4	40.5	4.30	0.70
	UC LA	6.5	3.2	9.7	48.4	32.3	3.97	1.07
	UT Austin	0.0	4.5	1.5	46.3	47.8	4.37	0.74
4. The Persian language is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) a language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, 5) very easy language.								
	Total	4.8	24.7	56.6	9.6	4.2	2.84	0.83
	UC Berkeley	0.0	32.4	54.1	10.8	2.7	2.84	0.73
	UC LA	8.1	17.7	62.9	9.7	1.6	2.65	0.91
	UT Austin	3.0	14.9	64.2	13.4	4.5	3.01	0.77
5. People from my culture are good at learning foreign languages.								
	Total	5.4	15.1	65.7	12.0	1.8	2.90	0.74
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	67.6	16.2	2.7	3.03	0.76
	UC LA	8.1	17.7	62.9	9.7	1.6	2.79	0.79
	UT Austin	3.0	16.4	67.2	11.9	1.5	2.93	0.68

6. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak the Persian language very well.								
	Total	0.6	6.0	12.0	40.4	41.0	4.15	0.90
	UC Berkeley	2.7	8.1	16.2	35.1	37.8	3.97	1.07
	UC LA	3.2	12.9	12.9	51.6	19.4	4.23	0.86
	UT Austin	0.0	6.0	9.0	46.3	38.8	4.18	0.83

7. It is important to speak the Persian language with an excellent accent.								
	Total	1.2	12.7	18.7	45.8	21.7	3.74	0.98
	UC Berkeley	2.7	8.1	16.2	35.1	37.8	3.86	1.03
	UC LA	3.2	12.9	12.9	51.6	19.4	3.71	1.03
	UT Austin	0.0	11.9	23.9	46.3	17.9	3.70	0.91

8. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.								
	Total	4.2	18.7	21.1	36.1	19.9	3.50	1.13
	UC Berkeley	2.7	29.7	29.7	24.3	13.5	3.16	1.09
	UC LA	6.5	21.0	21.0	32.3	19.4	3.37	1.20
	UT Austin	3.0	1.04	16.4	46.3	23.9	3.78	1.03

9. You shouldn't say anything in the Persian language until you can say it correctly.								
	Total	37.3	50.0	7.2	4.2	1.2	1.82	0.83
	UC Berkeley	32.4	59.5	5.4	0.0	2.7	1.81	0.78
	UC LA	48.4	40.3	6.5	3.2	1.6	1.69	0.86
	UT Austin	29.9	53.7	9.0	7.5	0.0	1.94	0.83

10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.								
	Total	1.8	6.0	25.9	44.6	21.7	3.78	0.92
	UC Berkeley	2.7	2.7	18.9	56.8	18.9	3.86	0.86
	UC LA	3.2	4.8	25.8	41.9	24.2	3.79	0.98
	UT Austin	0.0	9.0	29.9	40.3	20.9	3.73	0.90

11. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.								
	Total	0.6	1.8	15.7	34.9	47.0	4.26	0.83
	UC Berkeley	0.0	0.0	13.5	32.4	54.1	4.41	0.73
	UC LA	0.0	1.6	14.5	46.8	37.1	4.19	0.74
	UT Austin	1.5	3.0	17.9	25.4	52.2	4.24	0.96

12. If I heard someone speaking the Persian language, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.								
	Total	11.4	33.1	30.1	17.5	7.8	2.77	1.11
	UC Berkeley	16.2	32.4	29.7	13.5	8.1	2.65	1.16
	UC LA	11.3	38.7	25.8	19.4	4.8	2.68	1.07
	UT Austin	9.0	28.4	34.3	17.9	10.4	2.93	1.12

13. It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in the Persian language.								
	Total	3.0	10.8	22.3	47.0	16.9	3.64	0.99
	UC Berkeley	0.0	2.7	27.0	51.4	18.9	3.86	0.75
	UC LA	6.5	12.9	24.2	45.2	11.3	3.42	1.06

	UT Austin	1.5	13.4	17.9	46.3	20.9	3.72	1.00

14. If someone spent one hour a day learning the Persian language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent? 1) less than a year, 2) 1–2 years, 3) 3–5 years, 4) 5–10 years, 5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.

	Total	12.7	16.3	42.2	19.3	9.6	2.97	1.12
	UC Berkeley	2.7	18.9	56.8	16.2	5.4	3.03	0.83
	UC LA	11.3	22.6	41.9	12.9	11.3	2.90	1.13
	UT Austin	19.4	9.0	34.3	26.9	10.4	3.00	1.26

15. I have foreign language aptitude.

	Total	2.4	7.8	41.0	36.1	12.7	3.49	0.90
	UC Berkeley	2.7	10.8	40.5	32.4	13.5	3.43	0.96
	UC LA	4.8	6.5	45.2	29.0	14.5	3.42	0.98
	UT Austin	0.0	7.5	37.3	44.8	10.4	3.58	0.78

16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.

	Total	5.4	35.5	24.1	30.7	4.2	2.93	1.02
	UC Berkeley	8.1	32.4	29.7	24.3	5.4	2.86	1.06
	UC LA	4.8	37.1	21.0	32.3	4.8	2.95	1.05
	UT Austin	4.5	35.8	23.9	32.8	3.0	2.94	1.00

17. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.

	Total	1.8	0.0	3.6	30.7	63.9	4.55	0.74
	UC Berkeley	2.7	0.0	5.4	37.8	54.1	4.41	0.83
	UC LA	1.6	0.0	1.6	35.5	61.3	4.55	0.69
	UT Austin	1.5	0.0	4.5	22.4	71.6	4.63	0.71

18. I feel self–conscious speaking the Persian language in front of other people.

	Total	12.7	16.9	15.1	41.6	13.9	3.27	1.26
	UC Berkeley	13.5	24.3	16.2	35.1	10.8	3.05	1.27
	UC LA	14.5	19.4	11.3	38.7	16.1	3.23	1.34
	UT Austin	10.4	10.4	17.9	47.8	13.4	3.43	1.17

19. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.

	Total	9.0	28.9	19.3	31.9	10.8	3.07	1.19
	UC Berkeley	8.1	32.4	27.0	21.6	10.8	2.95	1.15
	UC LA	11.3	29.0	16.1	35.5	8.1	3.00	1.20
	UT Austin	7.5	26.9	17.9	34.3	13.4	3.19	1.20

20. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.

	Total	4.8	30.1	27.1	34.3	3.6	3.02	0.99
	UC Berkeley	2.7	35.1	27.0	32.4	2.7	2.97	0.96
	UC LA	4.8	27.4	27.4	37.1	3.2	3.06	0.99
	UT Austin	6.0	26.9	26.9	32.8	4.5	3.00	1.03

21. It is important to practice in the language laboratory.

	Total	5.4	13.9	45.2	28.3	7.2	3.17	0.97
	UC Berkeley	10.8	10.8	48.6	24.3	5.4	2.95	1.13
	UC LA	3,2	11.3	48.4	30.6	6.5	3.26	0.87
	UT Austin	3.0	17.9	41.8	28.4	9.0	3.22	0.95

22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

	Total	19.3	25.9	49.4	4.2	1.2	2.42	0.89
	UC Berkeley	21.6	24.3	54.1	0.0	0.0	2.32	0.82
	UC LA	14.5	30.6	48.4	4.8	1.6	2.48	0.86
	UT Austin	22.4	22.4	47.8	6.0	1.5	2.42	0.96

23. If I get to speak the Persian language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.

	Total	1.8	8.4	14.5	29.5	45.8	4.09	1.05
	UC Berkeley	2.7	16.2	21.6	18.9	40.5	3.78	1.23
	UC LA	0.0	6.5	19.4	37.1	37.1	4.05	0.91
	UT Austin	3.0	6.0	6.0	28.4	56.7	4.30	1.03

24. It is easier to speak than understand the Persian language.

	Total	16.3	45.2	24.1	12.0	2.4	2.39	0.98
	UC Berkeley	13.5	56.8	18.9	8.1	2.7	2.30	0.91
	UC LA	21.0	38.7	21.0	16.1	3.2	2.42	1.10
	UT Austin	13.4	44.8	29.9	10.4	1.5	2.42	0.91

25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.

	Total	3.0	6.0	11.4	47.6	31.9	3.99	0.98
	UC Berkeley	8.1	2.7	5.4	62.2	21.6	3.86	1.06
	UC LA	1.6	6.5	21.0	46.8	24.2	3.85	0.92
	UT Austin	1.5	7.5	6.0	40.3	44.8	4.19	0.96

26. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.

	Total	20.5	48.2	22.3	9.0	0.0	2.20	0.87
	UC Berkeley	13.5	59.5	18.9	8.1	0.0	2.22	0.79
	UC LA	24.2	41.9	27.4	6.5	0.0	2.16	0.87
	UT Austin	20.9	47.8	19.4	11.9	0.0	2.22	0.92

27. If I learn to speak the Persian language very well, it will help me get a good job.

	Total	10.8	25.3	38.0	21.1	4.8	2.84	1.04
	UC Berkeley	16.2	32.4	35.1	16.1	0.0	2.51	0.96
	UC LA	6.5	27.4	46.8	12.9	6.5	2.85	0.96
	UT Austin	11.9	19.4	31.4	31.4	6.0	3.00	1.12

28. It is easier to read and write the Persian language than to speak and understand it.

	Total	14.5	33.7	25.3	19.3	7.2	2.71	1.15
	UC Berkeley	13.5	40.5	24.3	16.2	5.4	2.59	1.10
	UC LA	16.1	35.5	29.0	14.5	4.8	2.56	1.10
	UT Austin	13.4	28.4	22.4	25.4	10.4	2.91	1.23

29. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.								
	Total	24.7	3.43	36.1	4.8	0.0	2.21	0.87
	UC Berkeley	35.1	37.8	24.3	2.7	0.0	1.95	0.85
	UC LA	19.4	29.0	45.2	6.5	0.0	2.39	0.88
	UT Austin	23.9	37.3	34.3	4.5	0.0	2.19	0.86

30. People from my culture think that it is important to speak a foreign language.								
	Total	6.0	9.6	34.9	32.5	16.9	3.45	1.07
	UC Berkeley	10.8	2.7	45.9	29.7	10.8	3.27	1.10
	UC LA	1.6	19.4	29.0	32.2	17.7	3.45	1.10
	UT Austin	7.5	4.5	34.3	34.3	19.4	3.54	1.10

31. I would like to learn the Persian language so that I can get to know its speakers better.								
	Total	5.4	10.2	16.3	48.8	19.3	3.66	1.07
	UC Berkeley	10.8	8.1	18.9	35.1	27.0	3.59	1.28
	UC LA	3.2	11.3	17.7	53.2	14.5	3.65	0.98
	UT Austin	4.5	10.4	13.4	52.2	19.4	3.72	1.04

32. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.								
	Total	6.0	13.3	42.2	34.3	4.2	3.17	0.93
	UC Berkeley	5.4	16.2	48.6	27.0	2.7	3.05	0.88
	UC LA	8.1	9.7	38.7	37.1	6.5	3.24	1.00
	UT Austin	4.5	14.9	41.8	35.8	3.0	3.18	0.89

33. People from my culture are good at learning foreign languages.								
	Total	5.4	12.0	67.5	12.0	3.0	2.95	0.76
	UC Berkeley	8.1	8.1	67.6	10.8	5.4	2.97	0.87
	UC LA	4.8	16.1	67.7	8.1	3.2	2.89	0.75
	UT Austin	4.5	10.4	67.2	16.4	1.5	3.00	0.72

34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.								
	Total	2.4	4.8	12.0	48.8	31.9	4.03	0.92
	UC Berkeley	2.7	0.0	8.1	51.4	37.8	4.22	0.82
	UC LA	1.6	4.8	11.3	51.6	30.6	4.05	0.88
	UT Austin	3.0	7.5	14.9	44.8	29.9	3.91	1.01

Note:

[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

APPENDIX G

Frequency of Responses (in%), Means and Standard Deviations for the SILL Items

ITEM		[a]1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
		SD	D	N	A	SA		
When learning a new word . . .								
1. I create associations between new material and what I already know.								
	Total	[b]2.4	2.4	22.9	46.4	25.9	3.91	0.89
	UC Berkeley	0.0	5.4	32.4	45.9	16.2	3.71	0.80
	UC LA	4.8	1.6	19.4	40.3	33.9	3.97	1.02
	UT Austin	0.0	1.5	22.4	52.2	23.9	3.99	0.73
2. I put the new word in a sentence so I can remember it.								
	Total	5.4	29.5	30.7	28.3	6.0	3.00	1.02
	UC Berkeley	10.8	27.0	27.0	27.0	8.1	2.95	1.15
	UC LA	6.5	32.3	29.0	22.6	9.7	2.97	1.10
	UT Austin	1.5	28.4	34.3	34.3	1.5	3.06	0.87
3. I place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way (for example, words related to clothing, or feminine nouns).								
	Total	7.2	30.1	27.1	30.1	5.4	2.96	1.06
	UC Berkeley	5.4	24.3	27.0	37.8	5.4	3.14	1.03
	UC LA	11.3	30.6	25.8	27.4	4.8	2.84	1.10
	UT Austin	4.5	32.8	28.4	28.4	6.0	2.99	1.02
4. I associate the sound of the new word with the sound of a familiar word.								
	Total	9.0	22.3	24.7	31.1	12.7	3.16	1.18
	UC Berkeley	16.2	16.2	35.1	29.7	2.7	2.86	1.11
	UC LA	8.1	17.7	29.0	24.2	21.0	3.32	1.23
	UT Austin	6.0	29.9	14.9	38.8	10.4	3.18	1.15
5. I use rhyming to remember it.								
	Total	28.9	39.2	17.5	11.4	3.0	2.20	1.08
	UC Berkeley	29.7	35.1	27.0	8.1	0.0	2.14	0.95
	UC LA	27.4	38.7	21.0	8.1	4.8	2.24	1.10
	UT Austin	28.9	41.8	9.0	16.4	3.0	2.21	1.14

6. I remember the word by making a clear mental image of it or by drawing a picture.								
	Total	17.5	28.9	27.1	18.1	8.4	2.71	1.20
	UC Berkeley	16.2	21.6	29.7	24.3	8.1	2.86	1.21
	UC LA	16.1	27.4	29.0	19.4	8.1	2.76	1.18
	UT Austin	17.9	34.3	25.4	13.4	9.0	2.61	1.19

7. I visualize the spelling of the new word in my mind.								
	Total	4.2	14.5	24.7	38.6	18.1	3.52	1.08
	UC Berkeley	2.7	13.5	18.9	40.5	24.3	3.70	1.08
	UC LA	6.5	11.3	30.6	37.1	14.5	3.42	1.08
	UT Austin	3.0	17.9	22.4	38.8	17.9	3.51	1.08

8. I use a combination of sounds and images to remember the new word.								
	Total	6.6	19.3	31.3	33.7	9.0	3.19	1.06
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	32.4	40.5	13.5	3.49	1.02
	UC LA	9.7	19.4	32.3	32.3	6.5	3.06	1.08
	UT Austin	4.5	25.4	29.9	31.3	9.0	3.15	1.05

9. I list all the other words I know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show relationships.								
	Total	50.6	31.3	9.0	6.6	2.4	1.79	1.02
	UC Berkeley	45.9	29.7	10.8	8.1	5.4	1.97	1.19
	UC LA	61.3	22.6	8.1	6.5	1.6	1.65	0.99
	UT Austin	43.3	40.3	9.0	6.0	1.5	1.82	0.94

10. I remember where the new word is located on the page, or where I first saw or heard it.								
	Total	6.0	19.9	24.7	34.9	14.5	3.32	1.13
	UC Berkeley	8.1	16.2	24.3	37.8	13.5	3.32	1.16
	UC LA	8.1	21.0	22.6	27.4	21.0	3.32	1.25
	UT Austin	3.0	20.9	26.9	40.3	9.0	3.31	1.00

11. I use flash cards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other.								
	Total	21.7	24.7	18.1	19.3	16.3	2.84	1.39
	UC Berkeley	16.2	37.8	16.2	16.2	13.5	2.73	1.31
	UC LA	22.6	21.0	22.6	17.7	16.1	2.84	1.39
	UT Austin	23.9	20.9	14.9	22.4	17.9	2.90	1.46

12. I physically act out the new word.								
	Total	65.3	27.1	6.0	3.0	0.6	1.51	0.79
	UC Berkeley	64.9	27.0	8.1	0.0	0.0	1.43	0.65
	UC LA	64.5	22.6	4.8	6.5	1.6	1.58	0.97
	UT Austin	59.7	31.3	7.5	1.5	0.0	1.51	0.70

When learning a new material . . .

13. I review often.

	Total	4.8	15.1	39.2	31.3	9.6	3.26	0.99
	UC Berkeley	2.7	24.3	37.8	18.9	16.2	3.22	1.08
	UC LA	6.5	17.7	38.7	24.2	12.9	3.19	1.08
	UT Austin	4.5	7.5	40.3	44.8	3.0	3.34	0.85

14. I schedule my reviewing so that the review sessions are initially close together in time and gradually become more widely spread apart.

	Total	31.3	42.2	19.9	6.0	0.6	2.02	0.90
	UC Berkeley	35.1	43.2	18.9	2.7	0.0	1.89	0.81
	UC LA	32.3	40.3	19.4	6.5	1.6	2.05	0.97
	UT Austin	26.9	43.3	22.4	7.5	0.0	2.10	0.89

15. I go back to refresh my memory of things I earned much earlier.

	Total	5.4	11.4	31.9	40.4	10.8	3.40	1.01
	UC Berkeley	2.7	18.9	27.0	43.2	8.1	3.35	0.98
	UC LA	6.5	12.9	35.5	33.9	11.3	3.31	1.05
	UT Austin	4.5	6.0	32.8	44.8	11.9	3.54	0.94

16. I say or write new expressions repeatedly to practice them.

	Total	5.4	15.1	32.5	33.7	13.3	3.34	1.06
	UC Berkeley	5.4	5.4	51.4	29.7	8.1	3.30	0.91
	UC LA	6.5	16.1	21.0	37.1	19.4	3.47	1.17
	UT Austin	4.5	19.4	32.8	32.8	10.4	3.25	1.04

17. I imitate the way native speakers talk.

	Total	4.5	15.1	21.1	31.9	27.7	3.64	1.16
	UC Berkeley	8.1	13.5	21.6	18.9	37.8	3.65	1.34
	UC LA	1.6	21.0	14.5	32.3	30.6	3.69	1.17
	UT Austin	4.5	10.4	26.9	38.8	19.4	3.58	1.06

18. I read a story or a dialogue several times until I can understand it.

	Total	2.4	9.0	29.5	44.6	14.5	3.60	0.93
	UC Berkeley	2.7	16.2	32.4	37.8	10.8	3.38	0.98
	UC LA	3.2	8.1	30.6	41.9	16.1	3.60	0.97
	UT Austin	1.5	6.0	26.9	50.7	14.9	3.72	0.85

19. I revise what I write in the new language to improve my writing.

	Total	6.0	26.5	25.3	30.1	12.0	3.16	1.13
	UC Berkeley	8.1	37.8	21.6	24.3	8.1	2.86	1.13
	UC LA	6.5	19.4	32.3	32.3	9.7	3.19	1.07
	UT Austin	4.5	26.9	20.9	31.3	16.4	3.28	1.17

20. I practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language.

	Total	5.4	12.0	22.9	39.2	20.5	3.57	1.11
	UC Berkeley	8.1	8.1	32.4	32.4	18.9	3.46	1.15
	UC LA	3.2	8.1	29.0	38.7	21.0	3.66	1.01
	UT Austin	6.0	17.9	11.9	43.3	20.9	3.55	1.18

21. I use idioms or other routines in the new language.								
	Total	7.2	16.9	40.4	30.1	5.4	3.10	0.99
	UC Berkeley	5.4	13.5	35.1	37.8	8.1	3.30	1.00
	UC LA	6,5	11.3	45.2	30.6	6.5	3.19	0.96
	UT Austin	9.0	23.9	38.8	25.4	3.0	2.90	0.99

22. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.								
	Total	6.0	19.9	33.7	29.5	10.8	3.19	1.07
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	32.4	29.7	24.3	3.59	1.12
	UC LA	8.1	21.0	40.3	24.2	6.5	3.00	1.02
	UT Austin	4.5	25.4	28.4	34.3	7.5	3.15	1.03

23. I initiate conversations in the new language.								
	Total	10.8	24.1	26.5	31.9	6.6	2.99	1.13
	UC Berkeley	8.1	24.3	27.0	27.0	13.5	3.14	1.18
	UC LA	8.1	25.8	22.6	37.1	6.5	3.08	1.11
	UT Austin	14.9	22.4	29.9	29.9	3.0	2.84	1.11

24. I watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.								
	Total	6.6	19.3	22.9	31.3	16.9	3.27	1.23
	UC Berkeley	8.1	21.6	27.0	32.4	10.8	3.16	1.14
	UC LA	14.5	11.3	21.0	33.9	19.4	3.32	1.32
	UT Austin	6.0	25.4	22.4	28.4	17.9	3.27	1.20

25. I try to think in the new language.								
	Total	10.2	20.5	24.1	27.1	18.1	3.22	1.25
	UC Berkeley	8.1	24.3	24.3	27.0	16.2	3.19	1.22
	UC LA	11.3	17.7	21.0	25.8	24.2	3.34	1.33
	UT Austin	10.4	20.9	26.9	28.4	13.4	3.13	1.21

26. I attend and participate in out–of–class events where the new language is spoken.								
	Total	7.8	24.7	36.1	18.7	12.7	3.04	1.12
	UC Berkeley	8.1	24.3	37.8	16.2	13.5	3.03	1.14
	UC LA	11.3	21.0	40.3	16.1	11.3	2.95	1.14
	UT Austin	3.0	28.4	32.8	22.4	13.4	3.15	1.08

27. I read for pleasure in the new language.								
	Total	21.1	30.1	28.3	15.1	5.4	2.54	1.14
	UC Berkeley	16.2	27.0	29.7	24.3	2.7	2.70	1.10
	UC LA	25.8	27.4	30.6	11.3	4.8	2.42	1.14
	UT Austin	19.4	34.3	25.4	13.4	7.5	2.55	1.17

28. I write personal notes, messages, letters, or reports in the new language.								
	Total	20.5	27.7	27.1	17.5	7.2	2.63	1.20
	UC Berkeley	16.2	32.4	24.3	18.9	8.1	2.70	1.20
	UC LA	22.6	19.4	33.9	17.7	6.5	2.66	1.20

	UT Austin	19.4	32.8	23.9	16.4	7.5	2.60	1.19

29. I skim the reading passage first to get the main idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.								
	Total	11.4	27.1	28.3	27.1	6.0	2.89	1.11
	UC Berkeley	16.2	27.0	32.4	18.9	5.4	2.70	1.13
	UC LA	11.3	22.6	37.1	22.6	6.5	2.90	1.08
	UT Austin	9.0	31.3	17.9	35.8	6.0	2.99	1.14

30. I seek specific details in what I hear or read.								
	Total	3.0	15.7	28.3	40.4	12.7	3.44	1.00
	UC Berkeley	2.7	8.1	35.1	37.8	16.2	3.57	0.96
	UC LA	1.6	19.4	24.2	43.5	11.3	3.44	0.99
	UT Austin	3.0	16.4	29.9	38.8	11.9	3.40	1.00

31. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.								
	Total	7.2	13.9	21.1	30.7	27.1	3.57	1.23
	UC Berkeley	2.7	5.4	27.0	35.1	29.7	3.84	1.01
	UC LA	4.8	9.7	24.2	32.3	29.0	3.71	1.14
	UT Austin	10.4	22.4	16.4	26.9	23.9	3.31	1.34

32. I take notes in class in the new language.								
	Total	7.8	8.4	17.5	31.3	34.9	3.77	1.23
	UC Berkeley	2.7	5.4	21.6	27.0	43.2	4.03	1.07
	UC LA	6.5	6.5	17.7	33.9	35.5	3.85	1.17
	UT Austin	11.9	11.9	14.9	31.3	29.9	3.55	1.35

33. I make summaries of new language material.								
	Total	13.9	27.1	36.1	14.5	8.4	2.77	1.12
	UC Berkeley	8.1	29.7	40.5	13.5	8.1	2.84	1.04
	UC LA	16.1	17.7	38.7	19.4	8.1	2.85	1.16
	UT Austin	14.9	34.3	31.3	10.4	9.0	2.64	1.14

34. I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.								
	Total	6.6	13.9	45.2	25.9	8.4	3.16	0.99
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	51.4	32.4	2.7	3.19	0.85
	UC LA	6.5	16.1	50.0	14.5	12.9	3.11	1.04
	UT Austin	6.0	14.9	38.8	32.8	7.5	3.11	0.99

35. I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which I understand.								
	Total	4.8	17.5	27.7	38.0	12.0	3.35	1.06
	UC Berkeley	5.4	21.6	32.4	29.7	10.8	3.19	1.08
	UC LA	6.5	17.7	25.8	35.5	14.5	3.34	1.13
	UT Austin	3.0	14.9	26.9	44.8	10.4	3.45	0.97

36. I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.								
	Total	3.6	13.3	15.7	33.1	34.3	3.81	1.15
	UC Berkeley	2.7	13.5	16.2	35.1	32.4	3.81	1.13

	UC LA	3.2	12.9	16.1	33.9	33.9	3.82	1.14
	UT Austin	3.0	13.4	16.4	31.3	35.8	3.84	1.15

37. I try to understand what I have heard or read without translating it word–for–word into my own language.

	Total	3.0	15.7	22.9	39.2	19.3	3.56	1.06
	UC Berkeley	2.7	16.2	18.9	37.8	24.3	3.65	1.11
	UC LA	6.5	14.5	29.0	37.1	12.9	3.35	1.09
	UT Austin	0.0	16.4	19.4	41.8	22.4	3.70	1.00

38. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.

	Total	2.4	11.4	35.5	30.7	19.9	3.54	1.01
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	21.6	32.4	32.4	3.78	1.16
	UC LA	1.6	11.3	40.3	30.6	16.1	3.48	0.95
	UT Austin	0.0	13.4	40.3	29.9	16.4	3.49	0.93

39. I look for patterns in the new language.

	Total	3.0	4.8	19.9	42.2	30.1	3.92	0.98
	UC Berkeley	5.4	5.4	13.5	37.8	37.8	3.97	1.12
	UC LA	4.8	3.2	25.8	37.1	29.0	3.82	1.05
	UT Austin	0.0	6.0	17.9	49.3	26.9	3.97	0.83

40. I develop my own understanding of how the language works, even if sometimes I have to revise my understanding based on new information.

	Total	3.6	8.4	27.7	39.8	20.5	3.65	1.01
	UC Berkeley	2.7	8.1	18.9	45.9	24.3	3.81	1.00
	UC LA	3.2	8.1	29.0	33.9	25.8	3.71	1.05
	UT Austin	1.5	9.0	34.3	41.8	13.4	3.57	0.89

41. When I do not understand all the words I read or hear, I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the context or situation.

	Total	3.6	3.6	18.1	42.2	32.5	3.96	0.99
	UC Berkeley	5.4	0.0	21.6	45.9	27.0	3.89	0.99
	UC LA	3.2	6.5	19.4	35.5	35.5	3.94	1.05
	UT Austin	1.5	3.0	16.4	46.3	32.8	4.06	0.87

42. I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.

	Total	3.0	13.9	24.7	40.4	18.1	3.57	1.04
	UC Berkeley	5.4	13.5	18.9	48.6	13.5	3.51	1.07
	UC LA	4.8	16.1	25.8	33.9	19.4	3.47	1.13
	UT Austin	0.0	11.9	26.9	41.8	19.4	3.69	0.93

43. In a conversation I anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.

	Total	3.6	15.7	32.5	34.9	13.3	3.39	1.02
	UC Berkeley	8.1	16.2	27.0	37.8	10.8	3.27	1.12
	UC LA	4.8	12.9	29.0	35.5	17.7	3.48	1.08

	UT Austin	0.0	17.9	38.8	32.8	10.4	3.36	0.90

44. If I am speaking and cannot think of the right expression, I use gestures or switch back to my own language momentarily.

	Total	2.4	6.6	21.1	39.8	30.1	3.89	0.99
	UC Berkeley	8.1	5.4	18.9	35.1	32.4	3.78	1.21
	UC LA	1.6	4.8	27.4	41.9	24.2	3.82	0.92
	UT Austin	0.0	9.0	16.4	40.3	34.3	4.00	0.94

45. I ask the other person to tell me the right word If I cannot think of it in a conversation.

	Total	2.4	6.0	15.7	39.8	36.1	4.01	0.99
	UC Berkeley	5.4	0.0	16.2	54.1	24.3	3.92	0.95
	UC LA	3.2	8.1	16.1	35.5	37.1	3.95	1.08
	UT Austin	0.0	7.5	14.9	35.8	41.8	4.12	0.93

46. When I cannot think of the correct expression to say or write, I find a different way to express the idea: for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea.

	Total	1.2	7.8	16.3	38.0	36.7	4.01	0.98
	UC Berkeley	2.7	5.4	16.2	51.4	24.3	3.89	0.94
	UC LA	0.0	6.5	14.5	33.9	45.2	4.18	0.92
	UT Austin	1.5	10.4	17.9	34.3	35.8	3.93	1.05

47. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.

	Total	25.9	44.6	12.7	10.8	6.0	2.27	1.14
	UC Berkeley	24.3	43.2	13.5	8.1	10.8	2.38	1.26
	UC LA	30.6	41.9	9.7	11.3	6.5	2.21	1.19
	UT Austin	22.4	47.8	14.9	11.9	3.0	2.25	1.04

48. I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words.

	Total	13.3	27.1	33.7	18.7	7.2	2.80	1.12
	UC Berkeley	24.3	21.6	35.1	13.5	5.4	2.54	1.17
	UC LA	8.1	37.1	27.4	17.7	9.7	2.84	1.12
	UT Austin	11.9	20.9	38.8	22.4	6.0	2.90	1.08

49. I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.

	Total	15.1	27.1	28.3	22.9	6.6	2.79	1.15
	UC Berkeley	24.3	40.5	21.6	10.8	2.7	2.27	1.05
	UC LA	16.1	25.8	32.3	19.4	6.5	2.74	1.14
	UT Austin	9.0	20.9	28.4	32.8	9.0	3.12	1.12

50. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and put unrelated topics out of my mind.

	Total	2.4	12.7	31.9	36.1	16.9	3.52	1.00
	UC Berkeley	2.7	10.8	35.1	35.1	16.2	3.51	0.99
	UC LA	0.0	16.1	37.1	30.6	16.1	3.47	0.95
	UT Austin	3.0	10.4	26.9	41.8	17.9	3.61	1.00

51. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, I focus the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds.								
	Total	4.8	15.7	33.7	25.9	19.9	3.40	1.12
	UC Berkeley	5.4	27.0	35.1	16.2	16.2	3.11	1.15
	UC LA	1.6	16.1	41.9	22.6	17.7	3.39	1.01
	UT Austin	7.5	9.0	25.4	34.3	23.9	3.58	1.17

52. I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.								
	Total	18.7	27.7	30.7	16.9	6.0	2.64	1.15
	UC Berkeley	27.0	24.3	24.3	16.2	8.1	2.54	1.18
	UC LA	17.7	25.8	32.3	19.4	4.8	2.68	1.13
	UT Austin	14.9	31.3	32.8	14.9	6.0	2.66	1.10

53. I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.								
	Total	13.3	24.1	24.9	21.1	6.6	2.84	1.11
	UC Berkeley	21.6	29.7	32.4	10.8	5.4	2.49	1.12
	UC LA	14.5	22.6	32.3	22.6	8.1	2.87	1.17
	UT Austin	7.5	22.4	38.8	25.4	6.0	3.00	1.02

54. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quiet and comfortable place to review.								
	Total	7.2	17.5	23.5	32.5	19.3	3.39	1.19
	UC Berkeley	5.4	24.3	29.7	35.1	5.4	3.11	1.02
	UC LA	12.9	12.9	27.4	22.6	24.2	3.32	1.33
	UT Austin	3.0	17.9	16.4	40.3	22.4	3.61	1.11

55. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.								
	Total	8.4	21.1	30.1	30.7	9.6	3.12	1.11
	UC Berkeley	5.4	21.6	24.3	43.2	5.4	3.22	1.03
	UC LA	9.7	17.7	25.8	30.6	16.1	3.26	1.21
	UT Austin	7.5	23.9	38.8	23.9	6.0	2.97	1.02

56. I plan my goals for language learning; for instance, how proficient I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.								
	Total	12.0	19.9	22.3	31.9	13.9	3.16	1.24
	UC Berkeley	18.9	13.5	27.0	18.9	21.6	3.11	1.41
	UC LA	11.3	12.9	21.0	40.3	14.5	3.34	1.21
	UT Austin	9.0	29.9	20.9	31.3	9.0	3.01	1.16

57. I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.								
	Total	30.7	31.3	21.1	9.6	7.2	2.31	1.21
	UC Berkeley	35.1	37.8	8.1	10.8	8.1	2.19	1.27
	UC LA	29.0	21.0	25.8	11.3	12.9	2.58	1.36
	UT Austin	29.9	37.3	23.9	7.5	1.5	2.13	0.98

58. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as giving a talk in the new language) by considering the nature of the task, what I have to know, and my current language skills.								
	Total	11.4	18.7	31.9	27.7	10.2	3.07	1.16
	UC Berkeley	5.4	16.2	35.1	27.0	16.2	3.32	1.11
	UC LA	11.3	14.5	33.9	29.0	11.3	3.15	1.16
	UT Austin	11.9	23.9	31.3	26.9	6.0	2.91	1.11

59. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, in a listening task I might need to listen for the general idea or for specific facts.								
	Total	6.6	16.9	30.1	34.3	12.0	3.28	1.09
	UC Berkeley	5.4	18.9	35.1	27.0	13.5	3.24	1.09
	UC LA	9.7	16.1	25.8	33.9	14.5	3.27	1.19
	UT Austin	4.5	16.4	31.3	38.8	9.0	3.31	1.00

60. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practice the new language.								
	Total	7.2	16.9	32.5	33.7	9.6	3.22	1.07
	UC Berkeley	10.8	21.6	32.4	24.3	10.8	3.03	1.17
	UC LA	8.1	12.9	25.8	41.9	11.3	3.35	1.10
	UT Austin	4.5	17.9	38.8	31.3	7.5	3.19	0.97

61. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.								
	Total	10.8	25.9	29.5	24.7	9.0	2.95	1.14
	UC Berkeley	13.5	27.0	24.3	24.3	10.8	2.92	1.23
	UC LA	9.7	24.2	35.5	19.4	11.3	2.98	1.14
	UT Austin	10.4	26.9	26.9	26.9	6.0	2.94	1.11

62. I try to notice my language errors and find out reasons for them.								
	Total	6.0	9.0	18.7	47.0	19.3	3.64	1.08
	UC Berkeley	2.7	8.1	21.6	37.8	29.7	3.84	1.04
	UC LA	6.5	9.7	17.7	46.8	19.4	3.63	1.11
	UT Austin	6.0	9.0	19.4	52.2	13.4	3.58	1.03

63. I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.								
	Total	1.8	4.8	17.5	48.2	17.7	3.95	0.90
	UC Berkeley	2.7	5.4	21.6	45.9	24.3	3.84	0.96
	UC LA	1.6	4.8	21.0	46.8	25.8	3.90	0.90
	UT Austin	1.5	4.5	11.9	50.7	31.3	4.06	0.87

64. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.								
	Total	5.4	14.5	28.9	39.2	12.0	3.38	1.05
	UC Berkeley	8.1	18.9	32.4	24.3	16.2	3.22	1.18
	UC LA	8.1	4.8	27.4	43.5	16.1	3.55	1.08
	UT Austin	1.5	20.9	28.4	43.3	6.0	3.31	0.93

65. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using the new language.								
	Total	4.8	10.8	45.2	29.5	9.6	3.28	0.95

	UC Berkeley	8.1	13.5	37.8	35.1	5.4	3.16	1.01
	UC LA	6.5	9.7	48.4	24.2	11.3	3.24	1.00
	UT Austin	1.5	10.4	46.3	31.3	10.4	3.39	0.87

66. I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.

	Total	13.3	26.5	30.1	24.7	5.4	2.83	1.11
	UC Berkeley	16.2	32.4	27.0	24.3	0.0	2.59	1.04
	UC LA	16.1	19.4	30.6	24.2	9.7	2.92	1.22
	UT Austin	9.0	29.9	31.3	25.4	4.5	2.87	1.04

67. I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even thought I might make some mistakes.

	Total	3.0	13.9	34.1	30.1	18.7	3.48	1.04
	UC Berkeley	8.1	13.5	27.0	35.1	16.2	3.38	1.16
	UC LA	1.6	12.9	35.5	21.0	29.0	3.63	1.09
	UT Austin	1.5	14.9	37.3	35.8	10.4	3.39	0.92

68. I give myself a tangible reward when I have done something well in my language learning.

	Total	29.5	44.0	16.9	6.0	3.6	2.10	1.01
	UC Berkeley	37.8	35.1	10.8	10.8	5.4	2.11	1.10
	UC LA	27.4	43.5	19.4	4.8	4.8	2.16	1.04
	UT Austin	26.9	49.3	17.9	4.5	1.5	2.04	0.88

69. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect my language learning.

	Total	22.3	34.9	25.3	12.7	4.8	2.43	1.11
	UC Berkeley	21.6	35.1	27.0	10.8	5.4	2.43	1.12
	UC LA	19.4	35.5	30.6	11.3	3.2	2.44	1.03
	UT Austin	25.4	34.3	19.4	14.9	6.0	4.67	0.79

70. I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning.

	Total	78.3	11.4	7.2	2.4	0.6	1.36	0.77
	UC Berkeley	81.1	5.4	5.4	5.4	2.7	1.43	1.02
	UC LA	75.8	11.3	12.9	0.0	0.0	1.37	0.71
	UT Austin	77.6	14.9	4.5	3.0	0.0	1.33	0.71

71. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings concerning the language learning process.

	Total	33.1	26.5	17.5	18.1	4.8	2.35	1.25
	UC Berkeley	43.2	16.2	18.9	13.5	8.1	2.27	1.37
	UC LA	29.0	22.6	24.2	21.0	3.2	2.47	1.21
	UT Austin	29.9	35.8	11.9	17.9	4.5	2.31	1.21

72. If I do not understand, I ask the speaker to slow down, repeat, or clarify what was said.

	Total	2.4	11.4	19.9	37.3	28.9	3.79	1.06
	UC Berkeley	2.7	13.5	32.4	37.8	13.5	3.46	0.99
	UC LA	4.8	4.8	21.0	38.7	30.6	3.85	1.07

	UT Austin	0.0	16.4	11.9	35.8	35.8	3.91	1.07

73. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.

	Total	1.8	12.0	25.3	39.2	21.7	3.67	1.01
	UC Berkeley	5.4	10.8	29.7	40.5	13.5	3.46	1.04
	UC LA	0.0	12.9	22.6	38.7	25.8	3.77	0.98
	UT Austin	1.5	11.9	25.4	38.8	22.4	3.69	1.00

74. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.

	Total	3.6	14.5	26.5	31.9	23.5	3.57	1.11
	UC Berkeley	8.1	16.2	43.2	16.2	16.2	3.16	1.14
	UC LA	3.2	9.7	16.1	45.2	25.8	3.81	1.04
	UT Austin	1.5	17.9	26.9	28.4	25.4	3.58	1.00

75. I work with other language learners to practice, review, or share information.

	Total	12.0	23.5	35.5	22.3	6.6	2.88	1.09
	UC Berkeley	13.5	32.4	29.7	18.9	5.4	2.70	1.10
	UC LA	17.7	17.7	32.3	24.2	8.1	2.87	1.21
	UT Austin	6.0	23.9	41.8	22.4	6.0	2.99	0.98

76. I have a regular language learning partner.

	Total	36.1	24.7	17.5	12.7	9.0	2.34	1.32
	UC Berkeley	43.2	18.9	16.2	10.8	10.8	2.27	1.41
	UC LA	30.6	27.4	21.0	12.9	8.1	2.40	1.27
	UT Austin	37.3	25.4	14.9	13.4	9.0	2.31	1.34

77. When I am talking with a native speaker, I try to let him or her know when I need help.

	Total	2.4	16.3	27.7	33.7	19.9	3.52	1.06
	UC Berkeley	5.4	13.5	35.1	35.1	10.8	3.32	1.03
	UC LA	1.6	17.7	27.4	35.5	17.7	3.50	1.04
	UT Austin	0.0	16.4	25.4	31.3	26.9	3.69	1.05

78. In conversation with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested.

	Total	4.2	14.5	41.6	28.3	11.4	3.28	0.99
	UC Berkeley	5.4	10.8	35.1	37.8	10.8	3.38	1.01
	UC LA	4.8	19.4	38.7	24.2	12.9	3.21	1.06
	UT Austin	3.0	11.9	47.8	26.9	10.4	3.30	0.92

79. I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken.

	Total	1.2	6.0	21.7	38.0	33.1	3.96	0.95
	UC Berkeley	5.4	8.1	16.2	27.0	43.2	3.95	1.20
	UC LA	0.0	4.8	30.6	30.6	33.9	3.94	0.92
	UT Austin	0.0	6.0	16.4	50.7	26.9	3.99	0.83

80. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in the new language.

	Total	2.4	10.8	25.9	42.8	18.1	3.63	0.98
	UC Berkeley	5.4	5.4	16.2	43.2	29.7	3.86	1.08
	UC LA	1.6	9.7	29.0	41.9	17.7	3.65	0.94
	UT Austin	1.5	14.9	28.4	43.3	11.9	3.49	0.94

Note:
[a]1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree
[b]The percentage has been rounded off to the nearest hundredth.

APPENDIX H

A Bibliography of Persian Instructional Materials

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VITA

Azita Mokhtari was born in Tehran, Iran on January 20, 1967, the eldest of three daughters of Mahnaz Kahyar and Mohammad Mokhtari. In 1987, she entered Allameh Tabataba'i University's College of Persian Literature and Foreign languages in Tehran, Iran, from which she received her B.A. in English Literature with a minor in Linguistics in 1991. After graduation, she taught English as a foreign language for four years. In September 1996, she entered the Graduate School at the University of Texas at Austin from which she received her M.A. in Foreign Language Education, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Spring 1998. In Fall 1998, she began pursuing her doctoral degree in TEFL at the same school. During her studies at the University of Texas at Austin, she served as Assistant Instructor for Persian language in the Middle Eastern Studies Department. She has been awarded the Research Grant from Middle Eastern Studies Department (UT) and the Professional and Developmental Grant from Foreign Language Education Department (UT). From 2002 to 2004, she took time off her studies to work full time as Persian language Curriculum Designer and Course Developer at the Monterey Institute of International Studies in Monterey, California. The resulting curriculum, *Persian in Context*, is an extensive array of text, audio, video, lab, as well as homework and grammar books with the objective of bringing beginner students to 2+ level. In addition, Azita is an experienced Subject Matter Expert, Degree Plan Developer and Course Developer, having completed such projects for Central Texas College and the National University at San Diego. She is a strong translator and has collaborated on the translation of the book *Kanizu*, by prominent Iranian female writer, Moniru Ravanipur, which has been published. Azita has been selected as a faculty member at National University, San Diego, California. She is married to Ramin Sarraf and has a son, Sepanta.

Permanent address: 157 North Kargar Ave., Tehran, Iran 14388

This dissertation was typed by the author.